

Child and Family Welfare

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THE RELIEF OUTLOOK IN CANADA

DECEMBER, 1934

Reiterating the principles and proposals outlined in their March statement on the essentials of their relief policy for Canada, the Board of Governors of the Council issued the following statement on present relief conditions in December.

Taking the situation by and large across Canada, the report states that with the exception of the drought and crop failure areas in Manitoba and Saskatchewan, and the urban communities inevitably affected thereby, the relief outlook, as the year draws to an end, would appear to be distinctly more hopeful than at any time in the last three years.

THE PEAK

The all-time peaks in Canadian relief need were reached in April, 1933, with 1,591,857 persons dependent on unemployment aid and again in February and March, 1934, when a little over 1,600,000 were so situated.

IMPROVEMENT FAIRLY STEADY

However, it would seem that the improvement that was first evinced in the latter part of April and in early May in 1933, had slowly but steadily persisted with a heavily marked but natural seasonal interruption from December to March, 1934.

A BETTER OUTLOOK

Canada finds herself facing the fifth Christmas of "the depression" with an estimated number of 1,150,000 persons dependent on relief aid, of whom, however, approximately 175,000 are situated in the drought and crop failure areas. Her December relief bill will likely prove not less than \$5,800,000.

The above figures may not seem to forecast a cheery Christmas, but when it is realized that they appear to indicate an actual reduction of 50,000 to 75,000 in the numbers on relief, as compared with this time last year, and a possible saving of \$1,000,000 in relief costs for the month of December, as compared with December, 1933, it would seem apparent that the steady upward trend in relief since 1930 has been checked and held. Were the increase of dependency in the crop failure areas taken into consideration, the basic improvement in the relief picture throughout Canada as a whole would be greater.

In part, of course, the comparatively mild November, contrasted with 1933's early winter, has helped substantially in thousands of homes of part-time workers, or of those but shortly off relief, whom the first severe cold will find without fuel or heavy clothing. On the other hand, the mild weather has retarded lumbering operations in the woods. But, for the first time since 1930, the beginning of November has failed to record a really sharp upward movement in relief figures, and the year has sped on to December, with no abnormal increase over the totals of July.

There has been an upward movement in some centres, the seasonal increase following on the close of summer and harvest activities and preceding the upswing of Christmas trade, but it has not been violent, while such a barometric centre as Winnipeg entered November with over 1,000 less families on relief than on the same date in 1933. Ottawa, less subject to violent fluctuations, up or down, had 400 families less on relief, Hamilton 1,000 less, in spite of slowing up of some industrial activities.

A mining centre like Sudbury, Ontario, had about 200 families less on its rolls, and Vancouver about 700 less. Toronto had eased her load by some 100 families in October, 1934, from 1933, but November recorded an increase of 529 families over last year. Montreal entered November with a decrease of 1,200 families, and 42,600 individuals, as compared with totals at the same time last year. Though incomplete figures now available for November indicate an anticipated seasonal increase, the totals at the end of the month still remained approximately 1,000 families and 14,000 to 15,000 individuals less than for the same period last year.

British Columbia, Quebec, Ontario and New Brunswick reported undoubted activity in lumbering, attributed in part to improvement in trade conditions, while practically everywhere mining was responsible for a marked movement in employment, especially of single men. Outside the drought and crop failure areas, agricultural employment, while becoming quieter with winter's approach, had earlier absorbed heavy groups of farm and idle labour. The relief load of the Maritimes would appear to be cut nearly in half compared with 1933.

WAGE RELATIONS

There would seem to be some indication that tightening of minimum wage control and wage conditions in certain provinces had affected the situation beneficially in the reduction of families on partial relief, and in the removal from dependency of younger men and women, either living at home or "on their own".

THE IMMEDIATE FUTURE

So far, the picture is brighter, but not to the point of justifiable claims that the depression is broken. It would appear that we have held the trench, that is all, for the first time in four years. The next

few weeks will show whether the forces working towards adjustment will advance, mark time, or even recede. There will undoubtedly be an upward movement that may run from ten to twenty-five per cent in relief totals in the next three to four months, due to seasonal unemployment, to the "let-down" of employment after Christmas business, and to another factor which must not be disregarded in the present improvement, namely, the gradual completion of extensive construction activity under way since the spring of 1934 and stimulated by the recent public works programme. Of course, in those centres in which these works will not be started until early in 1935, a further immediate improvement will be recorded.

However, many of those employed in these works must live on their earnings as they go. They may or may not be able to overtake some of their long dependency on relief, but in few instances will they be able to get anything ahead against idleness if it recurs, following on completion of these works. Further improvement, as marked as any yet recorded, will have to develop before then for ordinary activities again to absorb these workers when the publicly financed programme ceases.

COSTS NOT DROPPING WITH LOAD

Another factor of significance is that while the relief totals may drop, the relief costs are not falling comparably. Costs of commodities themselves are rising, the Labour Gazette standard food budget for October, 1934, costing \$7.54 per week, as compared with \$7.24 in October, 1933, an increase of over four per cent.

The higher costs may be due in part to faulty administration in some instances, but in large part to the fact that the longer people have been on relief, the more costly does social assistance become. More and more people have become absolutely destitute and the relief agencies everywhere report an increasing complexity of demands for bedding, household utensils, equipment, and even furniture, as homes in the fourth year of idleness and need have been unable to make ordinary replacements, to say nothing of the homes denuded by loss of all saleable articles before going on relief.

In many centres, appreciation of serious social problems, festering and breaking through the routine of mass relief, is awakening a consciousness of the need of more adequate administrative provisions on other than an emergency basis. This will unquestionably involve an increase in costs which will, however, be fully justified by results.

Another factor is the natural pressure for health and medical care which grows apace, while in most centres that have attempted to meet this need for their unemployed citizens, the actual costs of such services cannot but mount as long term dependency continues.

RELIEF ADMINISTRATION

This evidence of accumulating social problems is one of the greatest challenges in the situation, as is that for removal of relief standards, practices, and administration, from the realm of political influence and manoeuvre. To a greater extent than ever before, there is an indication

of despair and sense of futility among those upon whom the immediate administration of relief rests. From centre upon centre, come reports of an increasing core of permanent dependency developing from the tendency to exploit the vote of the dependent unemployed and to offer more and easier relief instead of constructive employment and relief control projects.

HEALTH

The health of the people, as indicated by mortality and malnutrition statistics, appears to continue unexpectedly good, though it must be remembered that fortunately no epidemic condition has attacked us, as in 1919, and that morbidity statistics are not generally available, nor are records generally available that would show the extent of malnutrition within the class that is admittedly meeting the greatest pressure of the times—the low paid wage-earner and the home-owner on part or reduced pay, and his family.

THE CHALLENGE STILL ARRESTING

With all that there is of encouragement in a picture that, for four years, has stood in almost unrelieved darkness, there are still certain incontrovertible challenges—at least 200,000 heads of families, probably more, are still receiving unemployment relief, and over 20,000 able bodied employable men are in relief camps, with perhaps 25,000 to 30,000 men temporarily engaged in relief works.

There are probably 25,000 more single or homeless men idle in their own communities. There are an unascertained number, at least not less than 200,000 youths and girls from, say, sixteen to twenty-four or twenty-five years of age, who are idle, unemployed, and receiving relief either in their own homes, or as "single persons".

To increasing degree comes the demand for more comprehensive plans of land settlement, rural rehabilitation and control of an undoubted movement of transient and rural families to urban centres.

Agency after agency reports the problem of hordes of young graduates of the business and technical schools, and of the colleges and universities, unplaced, idle, drifting to dependency.

And the cost, in cold dollars, something over a million and a quarter a week, continues to exceed the railway deficit. Ontario's costs alone exceed \$2,250,000 monthly, and the city of Montreal is spending at the rate of \$1,400,000 per month. The cost in character and morale cannot be measured.

The situation may improve further or may grow worse in the next six months, but any very substantial improvement must rest not only upon the continuance of the forces tending to recovery, but also upon conscious effort to benefit therefrom, and adequate organization to meet existing needs. The problem is of such extent and deep rooted persistence as to depend in large part upon courageous, national leadership, which will set the pace for provincial and municipal co-operation and give fresh heart to the mass of the Canadian people.

BRITAIN'S NEW UNEMPLOYMENT ACT

K. M. H. in the Winnipeg Free Press.

It will be recalled that in 1932, Mr. Ronald C. Davison, whose description of the new British system is here reviewed, was the guest in Canada of this Council, the National Education Council and the Canadian Conference on Social Work and addressed the latter body twice on social insurance in Britain.

Since this summary was published, Sir Henry Betterton, Minister of Labour in the British Ministry has resigned upon appointment as Chairman of the new Unemployment Assistance Board. The schedules provided under the new act and regulations come into effect January, 1935, and are reprinted at the end of this article.—Ed.

To hand is a pamphlet from the pen of Ronald C. Davison explaining the new Unemployment Act which was passed by the imperial Parliament in June, and which comes into effect this autumn. It deals with insurance benefits, non-contributory assistance, and training centres.

The section dealing with the 13,000,000 insured workers restores the 10 per cent cut of 1931 which in conjunction with the fact that the cost of living has somewhat lowered, makes a decided raise in benefits.

"In terms of insurance," explains Mr. Davison, "what it comes to is this: that in return for 30 contributions of 10d., an unemployed man who has a wife and no children will be eligible for 26s. a week for six months and no questions asked as to his savings or other resources. If the wife is also insured and also unemployed, the pair can draw £41 12s. between them as their right. Take another typical case: a family of five consisting of a man, wife, unemployed daughter of 18 and two school children. The man will draw 17s. for himself, 9s. for his wife and 4s. for the two children. The girl will have 12s. benefit in her own right—making 42s. a week in all, and this can go on for 26 weeks if necessary. And at the end of six months what happens? Well, if a claimant who has contributed regularly has not drawn any benefit in the five years preceding his claim, he can get an extension of benefit at just the same rates for another six months, making a year in all."

As to where the money is found, Mr. Davison states that one-third of the fund is provided by the insured workers themselves, one-third by their employers and one-third by the Exchequer. About £60,000,000 will be raised this way during the current year.

If unemployment should continue to fall as it has since January, 1933, there may be a balance in hand, in which case there might be further benefits or a lowering of the rates. To study this phase a Statutory Unemployment Insurance Committee has been set up whose duty it will be to report to Parliament every year and their recommendations will be published. Sir William Beveridge is the first chairman of this committee and it contains representatives of employers and employees, who have special interest in the fund.

Explaining the system by which the scheme is worked of stamps signifying the contributions, Mr. Davison says that if a claim should be disallowed by the Exchanges then the worker may apply to the local Court of Referees. This court is composed of the chairman nominated by the Minister of Labor, and one representative each of the workers and employers. The claim, however, is practically always acknowledged if the applicant is under 65 years of age, and has had 30 stamps in the last two years.

Speaking of the adequacy of the scheme, Mr. Davison declares that for the great majority insurance benefit does not suffice to cover all their spells of involuntary idleness. Short spells are the rule and long spells the exception. In the year 1932—a very bad year for employment—only one in 13 of those who registered was out of work for the whole 12 months. One man in three was only unemployed for periods ranging

from one day to 12 weeks. In effect insurance benefits covered the unemployment of two-thirds of the 5,500,000 insured work-people who registered during the whole of 1932.

Up to now there has been a gap between the normal school-leaving age of 14 and the age of compulsory insurance which began at 16. The new Act takes into consideration the young worker between 14 and 18.

"After September 3, 1934, the minimum age of insurance is to be the school-leaving age whatever it is," states Mr. Davison. "For boys and girls between 14-16 the value of the stamp is 4d. a week, half of which can be deducted by their employers for wages. Benefits take the form of 2s. a week dependents' allowance for the unemployed parent or elder brother who supports the home. Such allowances already exist for parents where the child under 16 is still attending full-time school, e.g., scholarship children, and the new Act brings the unemployed juvenile into the same category. And as for the Junior Instruction centres, local authorities will be compelled in future to provide them or equivalent courses wherever the numbers unemployed are sufficient to justify action. It will be for the Minister of Labor to decide."

So that there will be no undue encouragement for children to leave school those going on to secondary school will be credited with 10 contributions a year.

ASSISTANCES

The other division of the new Act makes provision for those whom the insurance scheme excludes or cannot carry. This division takes up the case of farm workers and domestic servants and every able-bodied person between 16 and 65 who normally works for wages. Applicants who can show that but for the trade depression they would have been contributors to the State Pensions Scheme are not excluded.

"This means that practically all able-bodied people between 16 and 65 who normally earn wages and are not above the £5 a week line have a new national service to provide for them when they are unemployed or in need."

Need is made the basis for the allowances, and certain fairly common items of income are not counted in assessing this need. For instance, the first 20s. of a disability pension; half the amount of any workman's compensation, and the first £49 10s. of savings are disregarded. Assistance is normally in cash and not in kind. Workers who are involved in a trade dispute are ineligible for these allowances; they are also disallowed insurance benefit.

Mr. Davison points out that the whole set-up is national. An independent central body, "The Unemployment Assistance Board," is the pivot of administration and has jurisdiction over the whole country, England, Scotland and Wales.

"Except for the national system of Employment Exchanges set up in 1910, this Board is the only new national service with local offices to be established in Great Britain for over two centuries. And, in one sense, the new venture is more of a revolution than the creation of the Employment Exchanges because it transfers into national hands the care of practically all the able-bodied poor, which has been a traditional local responsibility since the days of Elizabeth. The explanation lies of course in the obstinate excess of unemployment since 1929, which has made it clear that some secondary scheme of relief behind insurance was an unavoidable necessity. All the functions, therefore, which local authorities have recently had in connection with Transitional Payments scheme and practically all those which have traditionally performed for the able-bodied unemployed are now to cease, though a small contribution amounting to five per cent. of the total cost of the new service is still to come from local funds in recognition of the future saving in local expenditure on relief."

Two bodies will be set up for every area to serve as a link with local opinion. One will be an Advisory Committee which among other duties will serve as a means of establishing co-operation with voluntary agencies. The other will be an Appeals Tribunal. Each tribunal will consist of a workers' representative and a nominee of the Unemployment Assistance Board, presided over by an impartial chairman appointed by the Ministry of Labor.

The final section of Mr. Davison's pamphlet is given over to a description of government training centres where up to now 100,000 men and 60,000 women have received training; and to the voluntary occupation centres of which he says "The main idea is to create facilities by which workless men and women can keep themselves fit in mind and body, or, to put it higher, can turn their enforced leisure into useful account . . . Altogether not less than 300,000 unemployed persons are being thus catered for during 1934."

REGULATIONS UNDER THE NEW BRITISH UNEMPLOYMENT ASSISTANCE ACT

(in effect January 7th, 1935)

F. R. CLARKE, Director of Relief,
Emergency Unemployment Relief Committee of Montreal.

The Regulations of the New Unemployment Assistance Act which have now been passed by the British Parliament and which go into effect on January 7th, 1935, contain innovations which must be somewhat startling to other countries. Placing the full responsibility for the care of the "able bodied poor" upon the National Government they are described by the Conservative "Daily Telegraph" as a "Humane Code of Relief Rules"; they not only give a new conception of a State's responsibilities to its unemployed but also set up standards which will probably have a considerable effect upon all charity both public and private. It has been the lack of standardized regulations for unemployment relief which has cost this country dearly, and Great Britain, through its transitional payment and public assistance plans, has also had to pay. How dearly, nobody knows and probably nobody ever will. Great Britain has now lifted assistance to the unemployed entirely out of the reach of local authorities with their local interpretations and rates of relief and the possibilities of maladministration through local "pull".

SINGLE PERSONS

The New Regulations divide the unemployed into two classes, (a) those forming part of a household and (b) those living alone; for the latter the method is quite simple, 15 shillings a week for the man and 14 shillings a week for the woman if over the age of 18 and, 2 shillings less in each case if they are under 18 years of age. For those forming part of a household, however, the regulations provide careful rules to meet various contingencies.

FAMILY RELIEF

First the needs of the applicant and of the number of members of his household are to be assessed as if the household had no resources. Scales are laid down arriving at a figure showing the amount which, subject to adjustment for rent, is required to meet the needs of the applicant as if no resources were otherwise available. Next, definite rules ascertain the resources to be taken into account, and further rules by which the two sums, on the one hand the amount required to meet the needs of the household, and on the other the amount of resources, if any, to be taken into account, are set one against the other and defining how, where there is a deficit, it is to be made up. The total, however, must not exceed the amount the family would normally earn if they were working.

The scales contained in the regulations hinge on a basic allowance of 24 shillings per week for a household containing a man and wife paying an assumed rent of 7 shillings and sixpence a week, with additional allowances payable in respect of dependent adults and children ranging from 3 shillings to 10 shillings a week according to age, with a minimum allowance of 4 shillings per week if there is only one child. Where in a household there are more than 5 members the total for that household is to be reduced by 1 shilling in respect of each member in excess of 5.

RENT

The question of the rent to be paid out of these allowances has received careful attention, with the object of putting all households of the same composition substantially in the same financial position relative to their necessary expenditure. The basic scale of 24 shillings as has been shown, includes seven shillings and sixpence a week for rent, but where the scale makes an allowance in excess of 30 shillings per week, 25% of this excess is allowed for rent; that is to say, a family allowance of two pounds per week, is considered to have included in this amount the original sum of 7 shillings sixpence plus 2 shillings sixpence or a total of 10 shillings for rent. If their rent is less than this assumed amount the difference is deducted from their allowance although a difference of not more than 1 shilling and sixpence may be disregarded; if their rent is greater, and is not considered higher than is normal for a person in their standard of living, then the allowance is increased to equal the difference. The amount considered to be "rent" includes the rates (taxes), interest on mortgage, or other legitimate charges against the property which the applicant would normally be expected to pay.

SAVINGS, ETC.

In considering the family's resources no consideration is to be given to any sum which the applicant may secure by selling or mortgaging the home of which he is the owner and occupant, and even his savings are practically untouched. The first fifty pounds of savings is disregarded. If they exceed that amount 1 shilling per week is deducted from his allowance for each twenty-five pounds of savings the applicant may possess up to three hundred pounds; in regard to this a London paper says, "We shall be curious to see on what grounds the Minister justifies the assumption that the unemployed person's twenty-five pounds should bring in two pounds twelve shillings a year. He cannot get it in gilt edged securities." A comment, which more than anything else shows

the great difference between the public opinion towards the unemployed in Great Britain, and this continent where in almost every place the regulations insist that an unemployed person must be destitute before he applies for relief and in some cities he is required to borrow on his life insurance and is refused assistance if he is the owner of property even if it is only a dilapidated shack. A further consideration is that income from pensions and health insurance is practically disregarded.

GENERAL

The regulations provide for bed linen and replacement of household necessities and clothing where necessary. There are, however, certain restrictions. *The regulations provide that no allowance shall exceed the normal earnings of a family when employed*, and they also provide rules for assessing the amount which each member of the household who is working shall contribute to the home, and the proportion received from roomers and boarders which may be considered as part of the legitimate cost of caring for them before creating a balance towards the family resources.

Fear is felt in some quarters that the basic scales will cause dissatisfaction among those who draw unemployment insurance benefit; the above details only applying to those primarily outside the insurance benefit regulations, and the rates for benefits being considerably higher than the 2 shillings a week allowed for dependent children under the Unemployment Insurance Act. It must be remembered, however, that in the case of unemployment insurance, "benefits" are paid as an "insurable right", whereas in the Unemployment Assistance Act, "grants" are made subject to the so called Means Test—the enquiry into all assets and resources. Every person coming under the scope of the Act automatically becomes liable to accept such work as may be offered and to take such training as may be ordered, and the Unemployment Assistance Board has very complete powers enabling it to purchase land or buildings for the purposes of such training, and for "requiring" the attendance at school, training centre, or reconditioning camp under penalties for non-compliance.

Those unemployed who do not feel that the unemployed benefits to which they are entitled as a "right" are adequate for their needs, may make application for unemployment assistance "according to need" but by doing so they automatically place themselves under the provisions of the Means Test and its other implications.

The Act goes beyond the categories of the Unemployment Insurance Act bringing into its scope all those, numbering some seventeen million, who are at present insured under the Widows, Orphans and Old Age Contributory Pensions Act and relieves the local authorities of all responsibility regarding the care of the able bodied poor. The cost to the State of such unified administration with its greatly increased benefits will, it is expected, cost only about £3,000,000* more than under the old methods, with unemployment remaining at its present level.

*NOTE.—An editorial note in the London Times Weekly, Dec. 20, 1934, sets this additional cost at an estimate of £8,000,000 more per annum—Ed.



MATERNAL AND CHILD HYGIENE

TWO MILLION BRITISH SCHOOL CHILDREN

In his annual report as Chief Medical Officer to the Ministry of Health, Sir George Newman expressed the considered opinion that there was no evidence of general, prevalent, or increasing malnutrition in 1933, but that there was evidence of patches of serious undernutrition due to unemployment in certain districts or groups of persons including nursing and expectant mothers, children under five years, and unemployed adolescents. In his annual report as Chief Medical Officer to the Board of Education, which has just been published, Sir George reaffirms these views in the case of school children. It is evident, he states, that, while some schools find that under-nourishment is present and has even increased in certain areas or particular groups of school children, such under-nourishment is not generally more prevalent than in recent years, in spite of the economic depression and the mental distress and hardship following in its train. This condition of affairs is due, he thinks, to the increased care and devotion of the mothers and teachers, to manifold forms of voluntary service, and to the public provision of insurance benefit, school feeding, and medical supervision.

The number of children in England and Wales submitted to routine medical examination in 1933 was nearly two million. Of these some 1.1 per cent. were found to be "mal-nourished" and to require treatment while 1.2 per cent were found to be under-nourished and to require observation. The percentage of "mal-nourished" children in 1932 was 1.0; in 1931 it was 1.1. There has thus been no general deterioration. In London last year the proportion of "poorly nourished" children was 4.7 per cent, "which is the lowest figure ever attained in London." How important a part the provision of school meals has played may be gathered from the fact that provision of some kind was made by nearly all the large towns. The total number of meals provided was 68,800,000, an increase of six and one-half million over the previous year. The number of children who received meals was 414,800, as compared with 399,400 in 1932. More than half the meals provided were in the form of milk, and emphasis is laid in the reports of many school medical officers on the value of this provision. In one case the statement is made that "without exception every child has improved rapidly in general health and physique." Children are selected for free meals on medical grounds, the idea being held in view that public funds are not to be wasted in an attempt to educate children who, owing to sub-normal nutrition, are unable to obtain full benefit from their education. "The provision of schools meals," Sir George Newman insists, "was never meant to be a mere form of poor relief."

(The Times, Nov. 28, 1934).

CHILD CARE AND



PROTECTION

CHILDREN'S AID STANDARDS IN ONTARIO

The following regulations governing the set-up and operation of Children's Aid Societies in Ontario were promulgated on December 20th, 1934, and have been obtained just as "Child and Family Welfare" goes to press.

1. LOCAL SUPERINTENDENT

A local superintendent must be a person sympathetic to the welfare of children, with a background of education and general experience that would merit expectation of a progressive and advancing leadership in the cause of child welfare in his or her local community. Preferably he or she should be under 45 years of age at the time of appointment. Recognition should be given, whenever possible, to a person who has had social science training.

2. FIELD STAFF

If and when additional staff (except stenographic) is employed, such persons should, whenever possible, have had a social science course. If impossible to obtain persons with such training, a person sympathetic to the welfare of children, with a background of education and general experience that would merit expectation of a progressive and advancing knowledge of child welfare. Such persons should be under 45 years of age.

3. SHELTER STAFF—MATRON

A matron shall at the time of appointment, be under 45 years of age. She shall be sympathetic to the welfare of children, with a background of education and general experience that would merit expectation of a progressive and advancing knowledge of child welfare. Preference should be given to a person trained in the knowledge of dietary and child guidance, with some nursing experience and capable of training and teaching children in habit formation.

ASSISTANTS

Such assistants as are employed should have proper qualifications for the particular position they are to occupy. In the case of an assistant matron similar qualifications to those required for matron should be demanded.

4. SHELTERS

Shelters should be only clearing houses and as such small units where children are passed through into foster homes. Such shelters should comply with :

- (a) Any laws affecting the health of the inhabitant of the county, city, town or village in which such shelter is located.
- (b) With any rule or regulations of the Local Board of Health.
- (c) With any law or regulations enacted to protect the inmates from fire.
- (d) With any rule or regulation or order of the Department of Public Welfare of the Province of Ontario.
- (e) Plans for the erection of a new shelter, alterations, additions to or change in an existing shelter or remodelling of a building for shelter purposes together with an adequate description of type and location of site, must be submitted for the approval of the Minister.
- (f) All children in the shelter shall be covered with liability insurance.

5. CARE

Each Children's Aid Society shall assure that all inmates of a shelter shall be humanely treated and suitably provided with food, clothing and whatever further may be necessary for their safety, care, reasonable comfort and general well being and shall provide facilities and equipment for proper play and development.

6. EDUCATION

Children of school age cared for in a Children's Shelter or in a foster home (free or boarding) shall receive regular and suitable instruction as required by the School Attendance Act.

7. HEALTH

Provision shall be made for the physical examination of each child coming into the care of the Society prior to his associating with other children in the shelter. Provision shall also be made for the proper supervision and safe guarding of his health during the period for which the society is responsible for his care, including regular visitations, when necessary, and at least yearly examination by a medical doctor and dentist.

8. RECORDS

Each Children's Aid Society shall keep records as follows :

- (a) The full and true name, sex, religious faith, color, place and date of birth, if ascertainable, or apparent age, last place of residence including street and number if any and dates of reception and discharge. The full and true names, places of birth, religious faith and occupation of his parents, their actual residence if living or latest known residence if deceased or whereabouts unknown, including street and number if any.
- (b) A record showing how, by whom and for what reason the child was given into the custody of the Society, also the reason for

the parents' and relatives' inability to provide proper care, if living, and such other information as may explain the neglect or dependency of the child as found by careful inquiry and investigation.

- (c) A record of the name and address of any person or persons with whom the child is placed out, boarded out or otherwise given into custody or control; their relationship to the child, religious faith and occupation; date and circumstances of any subsequent change in custody or control; date of consummation of legal adoption and any other data relative to the said adoption. Such adoption record to show that reasonable precaution has been taken to assure that the child is mentally and physically in proper condition for adoption.
- (d) A record of the date of each visitation of a child or his family.
- (e) A record of methods of discipline, training, adjustment of child in the home, provision for recreation and religious training, statement of work required and wages paid or allowances made.
- (f) Such records shall be conveniently indexed and provision shall be made either by means of a card index or otherwise so that an accurate roll call of the children under care at any time may be readily made.

9. FOSTER HOME

No child shall be placed in a foster home, either free or at board, or for adoption until such home has been visited and careful inquiry made by the Society proposing to make such placement or its representative and a written report filed describing the type, conditions and suitability of the home. (Representative for the purposes of this section and section 10 may mean another Children's Aid Society.)

10. SUPERVISION

Supervision over children placed in foster homes shall be maintained by the placing agency or its representative through visits made, in the case of children at board, at least quarterly, and in the case of children in free homes at least semi-annually. A written record of such visits showing dates and findings of visitation shall be kept. Such supervision shall be continued in each case until the child reaches the age of twenty-one years or is adopted or placed under legal guardianship or married or transferred to the care of another agency or otherwise discharged.

11. ACCOUNTS

Each society shall provide and keep proper accounts of current or running expenses and of moneys in trust for wards, such accounts to be subject to yearly audit.

12. STATISTICS

Each society to keep uniform statistics on forms provided.

13. REPORTS

Each society to submit to the Provincial Department reports as from time to time required.

14. INSPECTION OF SUPERVISION

Each Children's Aid Society shall at all times be open to inspection and supervision of an accredited representative of the Department of Public Welfare. Such representative shall submit to the Department a monthly report which shall fully outline:

- (a) Methods employed locally in complying with the above minimum requirements.
- (b) An outline of the general programme as sponsored by a local superintendent, his attitude and qualifications and progressively advancing development.
- (c) Whether children are placed in private homes or kept in the shelter, private home placement programme rating much higher than shelter.

Upon such monthly reports each society shall be graded by the Provincial Officer with the approval of the Minister from time to time and placed in categories of A, B, C, D and E. Those societies graded "A" shall receive \$2,000.00 per year, "B" \$1,500.00, "C" \$1,000.00, "D" \$500.00, "E" \$100.00, from the Provincial Government as a grant to be applied on the salary of the officer occupying the position of local superintendent and local officer. Prior to appointment each such local superintendent and the salary to be paid him shall be approved by the Minister and thereafter yearly approval shall be required.

A society receiving an "E" grading will be given six months in which to improve its status. If at the end of that time sufficient improvement has not been made such action may be taken by the Minister as he may deem advisable as provided for under the Children's Protection Act. A society must not reduce the local contribution to the salary of a local superintendent coincident with any increased allotment from the Provincial Government that may result from an improved grading.

CHILD PROTECTION

Miss Mae Fleming, M.A., B.Sc., has been appointed chief assistant to the supervisor, Children's Aid Division, (Mr. B. W. Heise), Ontario Department of public Welfare.

Miss Fleming received her education in the universities of Toronto, Chicago, Minnesota and the New York School of Social Work, and gained her first practical knowledge of the work through the Neighborhood Workers' Association in Toronto.

She conducted special research work on adoption in New York, and for three years made foster homes' investigations for the Children's Aid Association of Boston.

Before returning to Toronto in 1925 she was director of the Louisville and Jefferson County Children's Home, in Kentucky.

On her return she took up the directorship of social work at the Protestant Children's home, then took a post as instructor in parent education at St. George's School of Child Study. During the summers she has directed a nursery school at Rutgers University; directed the first summer social service course in Toronto, and studied methods in Great Britain and on the continent.

Miss Fleming is well known in Canadian social work and comes unusually well equipped to a post, in which her potential contribution, to the development of sound standards in the family protection and child care activities of the Province's fifty-six Children's Aid Societies, is well high incalculable.

NEWS NOTES

HAVE YOU HEARD THAT?

CHILD CARE—WINNIPEG

The Children's Home at Winnipeg has just completed its fiftieth year of service.

There are 110 children now in residence, though days' care totalling 33,050 days was given to 185 children during the year.

The financial statement showed the total income as \$34,929.89, including \$16,930 from the Federated Budget Board; \$3,000 from the Winnipeg Foundation, \$3,600 from the provincial government and a small amount from municipalities. Disbursements amounted to \$38,782.69, for the year, leaving a deficit in operating expenses of \$3,852.70.

The Home has recently been exploring the possibilities of certain changes in policy, but no public announcement has been made.

INFANT CARE IN TORONTO

The Infants' Home, Toronto, has just held its 59th annual meeting with an astounding volume of care recorded.

The infirmary report showed that the total number of illegitimate cases was 1,069 with 177 legitimate cases. Four hundred and thirty-six unmarried mothers applied with their first child; 27 with second child, and six with third; 32 married women, 4 widows and three of bigamous marriage also applied.

Seventy-two of the mothers in cases closed are with relatives, 22 married the children's fathers, and 42 married other men.

The home-finding department reported a decrease in the number of applicants coming to the department for children and that figures stood at 709 as against 917 and 1,010 for the two preceding years. Eighty-five homes were closed during the year as compared to 63 last year, the reason being lack of understanding of work, lack of co-operation, etc., but only five foster mothers gave up the work voluntarily.

Seven hundred and thirty-two children and 172 mothers were cared for in foster homes last year, while 569 persons were admitted; 562 removed and 242 had to be transferred from one home to another for various reasons, the report showed.

Seven hundred and nine homes were offered during the year and 88 were accepted; 357 different foster homes were used, 77 new ones opened and 85 closed. The 420 children admitted were a fairly normal group, with but three imbeciles, two hydrocephalics; one with cleft palate; two suffering from syphilis, and three with congenital heart conditions.

ILLEGITIMACY—TORONTO

The report of the field study, made by the Child Welfare Council of Toronto, with funds donated by the Junior League, of a selected number of unmarried mothers who had accepted the responsibility of the children has been concluded.

Of the 92 children who were located and studied, 37 were in the home of their mother and stepfather, 26 were with relatives, 17 with their mother alone, and 12 in boarding homes or institutions, being supported by their mothers.

The study revealed the need for more adequate effort towards the prevention of illegitimacy, for, despite readjustments, none of the children were living in a normal situation. Those who lived with stepfathers were in the most nearly normal situation, but those who lived with grandparents were not in as good a position, it was stated, because many of these families had a low standard of living and many, perhaps in an unconscious effort to make up for his status, overindulged the child.

The report urges greater support of those agencies doing work with unmarried mothers, so that they might be allowed to continue their interest and supervision over a long period of time.

ILLEGITIMACY—MONTREAL

Dr. S. Boucher, Medical Officer of Health for Montreal has struck out sharply against the nefarious traffic in this field, with which social work has long had to contend. The Canadian Press reports Dr. Boucher as declaring that children of illegitimate birth for the most part, were "spirited away" by "arrangers," who received payment from the parents for their services and were removed for sums ranging between \$250.00 and \$500.00 to rural centres there to grow up as orphans and wards in subsidized institutions. The baby "disappears," Dr. Boucher stated, after payment of various sums had been made to the "arrangers."

ILLEGITIMACY—ONTARIO

Ontario statistics indicate that the illegitimate birth rate in Ontario has more than doubled in twelve years, being 4.4 in 1933 against 2.1 in 1922. The Toronto rate has increased from 4.0 in 1926 to 6.9 in 1933, more than two such births being registered every day. Is the increase actual, or due to more complete registration arising from improved protective legislation and services?

HEALTH

Montreal has issued one of the best Health Department reports in its history, with a falling death rate from all causes, and the lowest infant mortality rate in its history—98.6 per 1,000 living births, following a steady decrease since 1908, when the rate was 214.2 per 1,000.

The diphtheria immunization results are gratifying, 85,000 children immunized out of 164,900 below 9 years of age, with a drop in the rate from 248.9 cases per 100,000 six years previously (1927) to 35.1, and a decrease in the death rate in the same period from 29.9 to 2.1.

A generation ago, smallpox was a recurring scourge: it is now nearly four years since Montreal has had a case reported. Every school child is now vaccinated.

Typhoid fever is substantially reduced due to preventive work also, with 75 cases due to imported cases. But small improvement is noted in tuberculosis, due to the inadequacy of beds for sufferers from this disease—less than 950 beds being available for the entire metropolis.



FAMILY WELFARE AND RELATED PROBLEMS

FAMILY WORK IN WINNIPEG, 1934

In 1932 and 1933, the Junior League of Winnipeg, studying the problem of most effective use of their personal and financial investment in welfare work in the city of Winnipeg approached the Central Council of Social Agencies of Manitoba with a proposal for a study of the field in which they were particularly interested, that of social work with families. On February 6, 1934, the Central Council passed a resolution accepting the offer of the Junior League to pay up to \$1,000.00 of the cost of such a study and report "on voluntary family welfare and family community work in greater Winnipeg with a view to indicating how best voluntary effort may be applied." A special committee of the Central Council was named to deal with the inclusion of "such additional features of Welfare and Community work as in their opinion might be included in the study". The executive director of the Canadian Council on Child and Family Welfare was asked to undertake the study.

Mrs. G. Cameron Parker was appointed field worker in charge of the study for the Canadian Council, and spent the greater part of April and May in the community. This was followed by further field work in September by Miss Charlotte Whitton, executive director of the Council. On November 19th, 1934, a comprehensive report was presented to the Central Council of Social Agencies over the signature of this field staff. This report (summarized herewith) deals entirely with social welfare in Winnipeg from the point of view of social work with families. In January a subsequent report will be submitted on the general evaluation of community organization machinery (privately operated) in Winnipeg.

The report opens with a brief analysis of the community background, outlining population, business, and social factors which condition the welfare problems of the community.

The study then reviews the story of early social work, in Winnipeg, under private auspices, until with the war, the privately financed effort of the old Social Welfare Association became gradually dependent upon public funds and finally merged as the publicly financed and administered Social Welfare Commission. By 1917, the report points out, Winnipeg which had been one of the first two cities west of Montreal to develop a privately financed family welfare agency had lost it entirely. It had, however, developed the most extensive public social welfare division in Canada, at that time.

THE PUBLIC SERVICES

Since the study was confined to privately financed services in the family field, it describes the different public bodies, only to present a complete picture of the facilities serving the family in need in the city. Several pages are devoted to the set-up and services of the Social Welfare Commission, the Civic Charities Endorsement Bureau, the Provincial Advisory Board on Unemployment Relief, and the Unemployment Relief Committee of the City of Winnipeg.

The Social Welfare Commission, the report describes as probably assuming greater responsibility for special advice and similar service to citizens seeking this assistance, and also to citizens, in need from causes, other than unemployment, than has been the practice in most other large Canadian cities. Its budget averages \$200,000.00 per year and its services on the average are given to 1100 to 1200 persons.

Naturally omitting any study of the financial and accounting systems of the Unemployment Relief Services, the report deals only with their social and relief aspects. The Civic Unemployment Relief Department spent \$3,500,000.00 last year with an average monthly load of roughly 35,000 persons. As relief machinery these services are described as operating with reasonably humane consideration and imagination for the person involuntarily dependent, granting aid at a reasonable minimum compatible with health and decency. Like most Canadian relief machinery, originally set up on an emergency basis, they "naturally lack emphasis on the human and social costs of unemployment". Adequate provision for treatment of the social aspects of those long unemployed is becoming recognized to a greater degree, as idleness and need persist. The distinction between those dependent because they are unemployable, and those unemployed and dependent over a long period of time will gradually break down in the challenge for proper social treatment of all. Winnipeg is dealing with her dependent citizens in these two groups through separate civic administrations today, the Social Welfare Commission and the Civic Unemployment Relief Committee. The former also provides for all "case work", done through civic services. The report, being confined to private services makes no suggestions in respect to these problems which may arise for the public bodies. It merely records them, as bound to arise here and in other cities, as part of the unemployment load persists into permanency, and states that the line, ultimately followed in their solution, will be bound to affect privately financed social work with families, in the City.

CERTAIN ASPECTS OF PRIVATE CHARITY

However excellent public welfare services may be, the report states, any community will always be faced with certain incontrovertible facts :

- (1) Private charity always has existed, and always will, and certain channels of more intimate and personal service will always flow through it.
- (2) Large numbers of persons in need of various kinds will always prefer to seek private rather than public aid, and will even endure serious suffering to avoid reliance on the latter.
- (3) Acceptance of these truths does not relieve either the private contributor or the beneficiary from private funds from the necessity of reasonable co-operation with all existing services to assure that private funds and effort are expended in the interests both of the individual and the community.
- (4) While the public authority can lay down certain principles to assure reasonable administration of privately financed charitable effort, beyond these limits it cannot direct or administer its activities. Discipline, leadership and co-operation within the realm of private charity must depend primarily upon these qualities within its own ranks.

SIX PRIVATELY AIDED SERVICES IN THE FAMILY FIELD

The report then launches into fairly detailed discussion of six privately directed services, touching families in their own homes and which might be described as offering full-time services. These are :

- (a) The Housekeeper Services operated by the Children's Bureau through which 20 Housekeepers are presently engaged, and as a result of which 85 to 90 children are being cared for in their own homes who might otherwise be in institutional care. It is an agency in the Federated Budget.
- (b) The Home Welfare Association, with a record of 13 years' work; has carried on the collection of salvage material; clothing services; "friendly visiting" and part-time services of one visiting housekeeper. It also is in the Federated Budget.
- (c) The Personal Service League—whose main function (through, the operation of a central sewing room for the cutting, and making of garments and bedding) is to bring voluntary sewing assistance to the public relief agency to whose depot all goods are forwarded and from which all raw material is obtained. So operating the League has no appeal for funds from private sources.
- (d) The District Community or Self-Help Centres or Neighbourhood Units, being developed on the initiative of the Local Council of Women to offer centres for sewing, canning, preserving, and other self-help activities to the families who are unemployed. No general public appeal has been made for funds, as yet.
- (e) The Goodwill Industries, operated by Grace Church.
- (f) The Greater Winnipeg Welfare Association, now dissolved, but to whose efforts the Survey accords recognition and whose conclusions that there is much duplication of effort, much misdirection and wastage of willing energy, a lack of effective co-ordination and that "much of this work has gotten into something of a rut" are quoted with the endorsement of the survey staff's observations.

THE CHURCHES

The Report then reviews a second type of private social work,—that carried on by different types of community forces, incidentally to their major purposes. At the head of such forces the Report places the Churches, claiming that in spite of allegations to the contrary, the Church, "traditionally the great mother of all charity" is still "the greatest well-spring of humane and generous impulses of man for fellow man, and the abiding inspiration of all that is finest in our philanthropy". To the Church, the report claims, the community owes both the broad conception of its social duties, and the individual effort within most of the churches for assistance to their own members.

A brief review follows of the main activities in this field of the different faiths, in Winnipeg, but the report claims that in this social work of the Churches,

- (1) there is a certain lack of co-ordination of effort among different churches of the different faiths, and even of different churches of the same faith in the same neighbourhood and that
- (2) were skilled leadership given in this field stronger co-operative service could be developed of value to the family in need and to the community.

MISCELLANEOUS SERVICES

Lodges, fraternal societies, veterans and military organizations, the service clubs, are then briefly cited and tribute paid to "this tremendous reservoir of community resources, energy and personal service,—much of whose potential impact is lost" because it is not conceived and executed as "the co-ordinated part of a balanced whole, working in accordance with well-considered plans both for the whole community and the individual case".

The special activities such as Fresh Air Camps and Christmas Cheer are next touched on, and the co-operative work done through the Central Christmas Cheer Committee held up as a sample of how effective combined community effort can be.

CO-ORDINATION CHIEF NEED IN COMMUNITY

Other miscellaneous and related services touching the family field are cited and the report closes its field study with the conclusion that :

1. Winnipeg suffers from an over—rather than an under—supply of well-intentioned effort in the voluntary field of aid to families in their own homes.
2. What is now needed is not the addition or creation of new services or the opening of new fields of effort as much as correlation and co-ordination of existing services and activities for effective attack on the whole problem and such re-alignment as will
 - (a) direct overlapping activities into other lines of service and so
 - (b) cover the "underlapping" which competition and duplication always bring.
3. Such readjustment of unrelated services into a more embracing whole, and a shifting of emphasis from an "over-served" to a neglected phase of work should not be regarded as starting "another new agency" but for what it really is,—an inventory, and adaptation of the resources of the whole business of voluntary effort to render better service in these changing times.

RE-ALIGNMENTS

The concluding—and most extensive section—of the report then outlines in detail suggested realignments of this whole field in Winnipeg. Introductory to its suggestions, it unequivocally enumerates certain aspects of the situation as the field staff have seen it.

- (1) An over-emphasis on material relief and assistance even in private philanthropy with little effective organization of the private field for its usual major service,—intensive personal work with the social problems of families or individuals.
- (2) Too great diversity of small ill-related activities, and so a "frittering away" of much effort and interest.
- (3) A consequent disinclination on the part of many citizens, who are willing to aid financially, to take a real and active part in the study and lining up of the community's social services, public and private.

- (4) Too much emphasis on the frictions of conflicting personalities and consequent defeating of more courageous lining up of the whole co-ordinated picture.
- (5) That the very devotion of some of the workers to their own specific cause has operated against co-ordination of related group efforts.
- (6) Confusion between the functions and finances of public and private services, and consequently too ready a tendency for some of the private agencies, once they get "under way" to seek some relationship to the public agency, and to apply for public funds.
- (7) A confusion between the community council type of organization which brings together agencies and groups for conference, consultation, study and planning in the community's social problems, and the type of autonomous, self-governing social agency rendering actual service, according to a co-ordinated plan to families in their own homes.

(The report makes clear that the private agency working with families in their own homes should no more be regarded as one division or activity of a community council than a Children's Aid Society would be considered a children's division of such a council).

RECOMMENDATIONS

The report therefore issues a challenge for "no beating about the bush" and recommends—

- i. The creation of one co-ordinating agency, financed from private funds for rendering voluntary service to families in their own homes.
- ii. That this agency would work side by side with the public relief and social welfare services, co-operating in the care of families, and those types of services which the latter were not equipped to take.
- iii. Recognizing that, (though different co-operative arrangements between the public and private services have been built up in many Canadian cities) the objective of the privately financed and voluntary agency is to develop its own entity, finances and resources and render intensive service looking towards re-establishment of its families, that the new agency should plan to be entirely self-supporting from its own contributions, and to stand on the quality rather than the extent of its job.
- iv. That, to this end, the co-ordinated agency should seek to assure representation and participation of some of the most effective and experienced personnel now in those activities which would be correlated within it, but that, its board should also have a majority of strong, new members, who would not have been associated in ancient rivalries, or be knit to the claims of conflicting interests but who would bring to this community effort, unprejudiced judgment and undivided loyalties. This would combine new enthusiasms with experience in an adventure in community spirit.

- v. That this re-organized and expanded agency should thus be formed from its own body of members with its own governing board.
- vi. That it should seek to serve Roman Catholic, non-Roman Catholic and Protestant groups, making special provision for the handling of Roman Catholic family work. (Private family work with Jewish families being handled by the United Hebrew Relief Society, it is recommended that co-operative rather than organic working relations should be developed for this group).

FIELDS OF SERVICE

- vii. That the correlated services should visualize their fields of responsibility as involving three major lines of service.
 - (1) Intensive individualized service ("case work" in social work parlance) with a selected and limited group of families which would involve also responsibility for the stimulation, provision, and perhaps supervision of various services, which would assure resources in the maintenance of the family as a unit, viz., housekeeper services.
 - (2) Assurance of occupational, recreational, and educational services for families generally, but primarily by the stimulation and use of all possible existing agencies and facilities, and the creation of new ones, only to meet proven unfilled needs.
 - (3) Related to the second line of service, the special encouragement of particular activities, peculiarly or traditionally associated with community effort to assist families in need, e.g. clothing, canning and preserving centres, community gardens, etc. This would include salvage and renovation work.

THE NEW AGENCY BUILT ON THE OLD

To bring about effective organization of these services the report recommends—

- viii. The creation of a new co-ordinating agency, for which it suggests the name,
 "Winnipeg Neighbourhood Welfare League"
 which would operate through six divisions of work.

DIVISIONS OF SERVICE

- (1) Family Case Work—with a thoroughly qualified case worker in charge, (who would be secretary of the whole agency), and one Roman Catholic worker. This division would operate under joint conveners drawn from the Personal Service League, and the Junior League with such committees as may be drawn from the membership at large. Since much of the work would be with the heads of families, the desirability of considering the selection of one convener from the male members of the Board is suggested.

This Division would plan to give intensive, individualized treatment to the families, which it would accept for care. It

would accept responsibility for assuring that, from whatever source help was obtained, all the needs of its families were given adequate treatment in co-operation with the health and other agencies, public and private. It would concentrate on the family problem case with deep-rooted difficulties, and the type of private care case, described as "borderline", and referred to it by churches, private citizens, and co-operating groups.

- (2) Housekeeper Service—with a full-time Supervisor, and an assistant, who would do the visiting housekeeping work. This division would take over the Housekeeper Service of the Children's Bureau and the Visiting Housekeeper Service of the Home Welfare, and would be the auxiliary service through which the case-working Division would attempt to meet the situation in homes threatened by the absence or illness of the woman at the head. Its committee would be headed by joint-conveners from the Home Economics group in Winnipeg. One full time worker would be transferred from the Children's Bureau staff if possible.
- (3) Salvage and Renovation Division—with a full-time secretary and under the joint convenership of a representative of the Home Welfare Association and a representative nominee of the Board of Trade or some similar group, who would be able to give practical assistance in the large scale development of what should be a very definite business system, affording employment within the agency's own resources. This Division would take over the collection of used clothing, furniture, etc., and various discarded materials, which could be renovated within its quarters, and placed in the agency's stock room to be distributed at no cost to families or persons recommended by the family Division.
- (4) Sewing Services—under the direction of a skilled full-time seamstress and which will be operated along two lines,
 - (a) A central sewing room where women recommended by the family division may be employed and paid fair wages. This service would be adapted from the central sewing room of the Personal Service League and the Commercial Girls' Club would be asked to stand behind it as at present.
 - (b) A system of voluntary sewing through the churches and other groups, brought over from the present system of denominational conveners of the Home Welfare Association.

Raw Material for both these services would be purchased from the agency's own funds, and made-up articles would be placed in its own stock-room. They would then be given out, free, to families or persons recommended by the family division and the cost would be charged to the agency's appropriation for this type of aid.

Joint conveners for these services would be drawn from the Personal Service League and the Home Welfare Association.

- (5) The Division on Self-Help and Neighbourhood Centres would carry forward the work begun in the Community Centres, sponsored by the Local Council of Women. This Division would be headed up by representatives from this group but also with some of the male members of the Board, giving leadership in developing special activities for men.

This division would share the services of the same supervisor with,

- (6) The Division on Leisure Time Activities—This supervisor would be trained both in social work and recreation services, but the Division would not build up leisure time activities, itself, except where gaps were found. Its contribution and its success would have to be judged by its results in assuring correlation of all existing recreation facilities now serving men, women, boys or girls, to the end that the needs of the family, as a whole were being seen and met, in this time of severe strain upon the home.

This division would be headed up by conveners from the Junior League and the Junior Board of Trade. The Junior League would be asked particularly to stand behind its services but representatives from all related fields would be drawn for consultation and guidance into the committee work of this Division.

B MANAGEMENT

- (1) This co-ordinating agency would be an independent agency, composed of its own individual members, and operating under its own constitution and by-laws. Administration would be directed by a board, consisting of the twelve joint conveners above, and twelve men, the majority of whom would be drawn from business interests—a joint board of 24 governors.
- (2) The new Board would name the Standing Committees for each of the above Divisions and in addition committees on
 - (a) Management
 - (b) Finance
 - (c) Headquarters, (which committee might be entrusted to younger members of the Junior League).
 - (d) Church Co-operation
 - (e) Roman Catholic Family Work.
- (3) As a practical means to the attainment of working co-operation the survey further suggests :

That the headquarters of the co-ordinating agency be located in an adapted building, which could be reasonably rented possibly for taxes, or even donated in a suitable district, contiguous to most of the families served.

- (4) That, in this building there be located :
 - (a) The offices of the "new" co-ordinating agency, with its case working staff.
 - (b) The salvage and renovation depot of the Home Welfare Association—at no rental cost, rental being carried by the centralizing service.
 - (c) The central sewing room and stock room.
 - (d) Committee Room for Committee developing Neighbourhood Self-Help Activities.
 - (e) Facilities for club rooms, a reading room, etc., as the "heading up" of training of leaders, for such features or phases of the leisure time activities plan, as would rest with this agency.

This work should, however, be visualized as operating out into the community in existing centres, clubs, churches, schools, etc., drawing in the special supervisor of the family agency, for help as required and for guidance in a well developed programme serving all parts of the City especially needing it. (A map with the report shows the present distribution of families on relief and existing leisure time and social agencies).

- (f) If possible, on a rental basis the office of the United Hebrew Relief, to assure the fullest possible co-operation in the whole private family welfare programme.

IX COSTS

The minimum operating budget for effective attack by such a co-ordinating agency upon the problems it would treat cannot be set in the judgment of the survey staff, at less than \$20,000.00 for the first full year of operation, but of this only \$10,900.00 would be "new" money, since \$8,980.00 already being raised and expended by certain services in the community, would, the report suggests go to the re-aligning agency with the transfer of governing personnel and services, while the full-time staff now in these other services could also be transferred.

The additional \$10,900.00 required, the report suggests, should be underwritten for not less than a three year period to assure an adequate demonstration. It is urged that the Junior League should consider providing \$3,000.00 of this amount, the Winnipeg Foundation another \$3,000.00 and the Federated Budget Board \$5,000.00. This latter amount, the Report suggests, might possibly be provided within the present budget of the Federated Budget (providing the allotment were previously approved by them) if the pledge collections are sufficient to include this allotment or if other special interest and support is accorded the budget of this agency.

The Report stresses that all its observations showed that the field of social work with families, through voluntary effort is the one most neglected in Winnipeg and that there is further evidence of this in the fact that the Federated Budget Board, and the Winnipeg Foundation, both obviously open to respond to well directed and enthusiastically administered private philanthropy have apparently had but slightly developed plans for private family work placed before them. Budget and Foundation allotments show \$96,000.00 last year for health, \$124,450.00 for Child Care; \$28,700.00 for Character Building Services; \$9,279.00 for Prevention and Correction Work; \$22,000.00 for the Blind and \$10,500.00 for the Aged, with \$6,400.00 for private family work. These two great sources of community giving have shown their awareness of the claims of well organized work necessary to the Community; public opinion has neither organized nor presented the claims of this great and fundamental field of essential service—adequate care of families in their own homes, in which the private as well as public welfare agencies have a most definite responsibility.

X STAFF

The minimum staff required for the proper administration of this venture in community co-operation, the report states, must include :

- (1) A thoroughly qualified and experienced director, with proven "case work" experience. The report urges that this worker must be brought to Winnipeg since the two or three persons in the City qualified to take the post should not be asked to weaken their present work by withdrawing from it.
- (2) A supervisor, experienced also in case work, to head up the supervision of the neighbourhood centres and correlate leisure time activities.
- (3) A Roman Catholic case worker and,
- (4) A supervisor of the Housekeeper Service, transferred possibly from the Children's Bureau with a visiting Housekeeper assistant, transferred from the Home Welfare Association.
- (5) A supervisor of the Salvage and Renovation Service—transferred from the Home Welfare Association.
- (6) An experienced seamstress in charge of the sewing room, (who, it is suggested, might be paid by the Commercial Girls' Club).
- (7) Necessary clerical staff.

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Other items in the budget provide funds for the wage payment of family heads who would be employed in the Salvage and Renovation, or Sewing Services, on the recommendation of the family case work Division of the agency: for special aid to cases of special type: and for the development of the community centres and other services.

XI GREATER WINNIPEG

Only a short reference is made to family work in the suburban municipalities, special mention being made of the Welfare Associations of St. Boniface, St. James, St. Vital, and West Kildonan. The desirability of the private agency serving these areas is recognized but a warning is issued that that would require another staff member. The suggestion is advanced that these Welfare Associations might combine to assure the salary of an additional staff member, on assurance of inclusion of the contributing areas in the agency's services.

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This report was released on November 19th and its principles in general endorsed at a meeting of the Central Council of Social Agencies on November 21st, at which time authorization was given for the appointment of a special committee to study the findings in detail. This Committee was constituted on November 26th consisting of Mr. C. Riley, Chairman, (Board of Trade); Mr. W. Whyte, (Federated Budget Board); Mr. Peter Lowe, (Winnipeg Foundation); Mrs. Norman Young, (Junior League), and Judge F. A. E. Hamilton, of the Central Council. The Committee has now arranged for Mrs. G. Cameron Parker to return to Winnipeg for the month of January, to work with its members on the next steps in this project.

(The report on Community Organization will be presented in January 1935).



COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION

COMMUNITY TRUSTS OR FOUNDATIONS

PETER LOWE, Secretary, Winnipeg Foundation.

The Community Trust or Foundation is held to be the most modern plan or method of effective giving and administration of charitable gifts and bequests. The plan has had the testing of some twenty years existence, which is long enough for us to judge its value in the field of charity and philanthropy. It is not designed to take the place of the Community Chest, the Federation of Charities or individual charitable organizations, but it does occupy a definite place of its own in the charitable, social and economic field.

The history of bequests for educational, charitable and benevolent purposes has demonstrated that the welfare of mankind would have been promoted and greater good accomplished, if the terms of such bequests or trusts, had permitted of change in the particular objects chosen or in the channels selected for the application of the funds, for the reason that the passage of time and the progress of civilization are constantly rendering trusts created for specific objects superfluous, or literal compliance with their terms unwise, impracticable and even impossible.

The Community Trust or Foundation Plan was originated to forestall what is commonly known as the "dead hand"—to provide a mechanism which would conserve the principal of gifts to charity, and, at the same time, prevent such gifts from later becoming useless or even harmful, because of changed conditions. It provides a channel through which men and women of limited means, as well as those of large wealth, may directly and effectively combine their contributions to the welfare of the community, under a plan which gives flexibility of application together with efficiency, and at the same time enables those who give donations or bequests to the Trust to designate the type of charitable service to which their donations shall be devoted.

SOME FOUNDATIONS IN NORTH AMERICA

On the American Continent the first of such Foundations or Community Trusts was founded in Cleveland in 1914, and in the intervening years more than seventy-five additional Community Trusts have been established. In fact very few large United States cities are without a Community Trust or Foundation. The resources of these Community Trusts, at the end of the past year, were in excess of forty million dollars, and when it is considered that this figure represents only funds actually in hand, which is small in comparison with known gifts that are to be received in the future, it becomes apparent that future growth will be at a very high rate.

Community Trusts, as the word implies, operate within and serve only the community in which they are formed. It is usual, however, for the Trust or Foundation to obtain power to administer gifts made

for the benefit of other municipalities, provided the donor in making his or her gift includes a gift for a particular Community Trust or Foundation. For example, the industrialist or distributor, having plants across a wide territory might desire to do something for the benefit of the communities in which he operates, as well as for the community in which he lives. Further, those who have changed their domicile very frequently have a kindly feeling for the welfare needs of the "old-home" town or city, as well as for their present place of residence.

In addition to the Community Trusts there are on the North American continent, many privately founded Foundations, many of whose activities are not restricted to any one area or community, but whose efforts are world wide. A great many of these have been in operation for years. In fact, the first charitable Foundation on the North American continent was incorporated in the year 1800, as the Magdalen Society of Philadelphia. From this humble beginning has grown what might almost be termed a major industry, with total assets which rival those of the United States Steel Corporation or the Ford Motor Company. The total capital employed by these Foundations exceeds several billions of dollars and the amount is increasing year by year. In number they exceed one hundred and fifty. A few of the outstanding include:

The Rockefeller Foundation and other charitable or welfare institutions established by John D. Rockefeller—\$12,500,000.00 or more.

The Andrew Carnegie Foundation and other benefactions made by him—\$225,000,000.00.

The Kresge Foundation—\$24,500,000.00.

The Russell Sage Foundation—\$15,000,000.00.

The purposes of these Foundations are varied. The gifts of John D. Rockefeller cover general charitable and philanthropic purposes, public health and medical research, the promotion of health and education throughout the world. The Carnegie Foundation is largely used for educational and philanthropic purposes. The Kresge Foundation is for charitable, educational and philanthropic purposes.

Every philanthropist has an idea or ideas of his own as to how best to promote the welfare of mankind and these ideas have found expression in their benefactions and the purposes for which they are to be used. Scarcely a week passes without the announcement of a bequest of some private fortune to charitable, social welfare, educational or artistic endeavor.

THE WINNIPEG FOUNDATION

Winnipeg was the first City in Canada to establish a Foundation under the Community Trust Plan; that it has the public confidence and is filling a need, is clearly evident in the fact that it is presently administering a Fund of \$2,250,000.00 made up of no less than fifteen trusts and estates. In point of resources it ranks fifth among the Community Trusts, being exceeded only by the large cities of New York, Chicago, Boston and Cleveland. The capital figures speak very well for Winnipeg when thought is given to comparative population.

Let us analyse the design and purposes of a Community Trust, taking as our example the Canadian product, The Winnipeg Foundation.

It was incorporated under the statutes of the Province of Manitoba in 1921, for the purpose of creating a perpetual body to receive donations in trust for charitable purposes. (Note the word "perpetual", The Foundation is to last for all time). This perpetual body is to receive donations for charitable purposes and to pass on to responsible trustees especially selected for that purpose, the custody and management of the property so donated, to the end that the net annual income shall be devoted in perpetuity to charitable purposes, in accordance with the directions of an Advisory Board, whose members shall give their services gratuitously, and shall be chosen periodically from men and women evincing an interest in the welfare of the community.

It is to be noted that only the income from donations is to be disbursed. The principal of the donations is to accumulate in perpetuity, *unless the donor when making his or her gift specifies otherwise*. For instance, it might be directed that both principal and income be disbursed over a set period of years, or income only for a number of years and both principal and income thereafter. The plan of operation is sufficiently elastic to permit of administration and disbursement of either principal or income, in accordance with the directions of the donors. It is open to each donor to direct how the principal and income of his donation is to be disbursed, but in the absence of any directions from the donor it shall be deemed that all contributions are to be invested and the net income devoted in perpetuity for charitable purposes.

The principal of the donations received for perpetual use is subject to the provision that five per cent of the amount may be used in an emergency, subject however, to replacement from income. No great stretch of imagination is required to conceive what is possible for the Foundation in the future, from the union of many gifts—many different estates—or parts of estates, grouped together for use for charitable purposes.

The income of the fund is to be used for charitable purposes. "Charitable purposes" has a very wide and broad meaning. It includes the assisting of charitable, benevolent or educational institutions; promoting research for the advancement of human knowledge and alleviation of human suffering; the care of the sick, aged and helpless; the care, protection and relief of needy men, women and children. In short, it means any object that will make for the mental, moral or physical improvement of the citizens of a community. The income from the Fund will be available at all times for the most pressing charitable needs of the community.

ADMINISTRATION

The administration of the Foundation is in the hands of an Advisory Board. How is this Board chosen? It is difficult to see how a better method of constituting such a Board could be devised than providing that citizens who hold the highest posts of public responsibility should constitute the Board. The Board is to consist, now and in time to come, of the occupants of the offices of the Lieutenant Governorship of the Province, the Chief Justiceship of the Province, the Chief Justiceship of the Court of King's Bench, the Registrar Generalship of the Province and of the Mayoralty of the City. There will always be five men holding these offices of the highest responsibility. The Act provides that they shall either serve themselves or shall jointly name persons to take up

the responsibility and discharge the trust. This method of choosing the Advisory Board ensures continuity and reliability. The Board serves without remuneration and the term of office is two years.

Immediately a donation is received the Advisory Board select one of the responsible trust companies to have the custody and management of the gift, if the donor has not indicated his preference. The Foundation does not retain any funds or securities but simply passes on to selected trust companies for investment the gifts received. Although title to all property is registered in the name of the Foundation, the Advisory Board has no duty with respect to the investing of the funds entrusted to it. The investing of all donations is left in the hands of the trust companies, whose special business is the care and investment of trust funds, and whose organization exists for that purpose. Nevertheless close cooperation exists between the Foundation and the trust companies in respect of investments. When income has been earned by any trustee or trustees, the Advisory Board at any period decided upon may direct the payment out by the trustees of such income, to the charitable beneficiary selected by the Board. The Advisory Board has the right or power to revoke a trust with any trust company, and may call for statements of income and capital at any time.

The act of incorporation calls for an annual independent audit of receipts and disbursements, as well as of the capital of each separate donation, and in addition the publication of the certified statement in two Winnipeg newspapers. This will ensure full publicity to the Fund, which is essential for its well being.

One of the chief distinctions between The Winnipeg Foundation and many others organized in the United States, is that it is not tied to the apron strings of any trust company. It exists independently, and by entrusting the care of its funds to the various trust companies secures the aid and cooperation of all of them. This feature has proved to be of great advantage.

UNDERLYING PRINCIPLE

The idea which underlies The Winnipeg Foundation and all Community Trusts, is that there are a great many men and women, both of wealth as well as of limited means, who want to leave their accumulated estates in a way that will do the most good but are doubtful as to how that purpose can be attained. Human conditions change so rapidly that a project which today is worth while may be useless, harmful or even out of date tomorrow. We change our minds daily on countless subjects, shifting circumstances call for the reforming of our opinions from time to time; and this will continue to be true of human life as long as the world remains. The dead man cannot foresee or wisely guide the future and, for that reason, money left with the best intention for a once worthy purpose often becomes, owing to changing conditions, obsolete and moribund.

For hundreds of years trust funds have been established for specific charitable purposes. Many of these have totally failed to accomplish their object due to the inability of the donor correctly to prophesy the future. The settling of large masses of property to "unalterable uses" goes back to the beginning of British history. Some twenty thousand British trusts and endowments and a large number of American ones

have ceased to operate because changing conditions have nullified the good intentions of the donors.

A few examples, both amusing and tragic, may not be out of place;

Horse-troughs;—The Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals was left a bequest of \$350,000.00 for the establishment of horse-troughs wherever needed in the world. The span of years between the horse-drawn car and the airplane is short, but during that time the use of horses has been greatly restricted and this fund stands idle.

Religious doctrine;—Joanna Southcote influenced many to believe she was to become, by immaculate conception, the mother of a new Messiah. One of her disciples bequeathed a large sum in trust to perpetuate the teachings of the new Messiah. Joanna died childless and her "disciple's" bequest continues to be useless.

School Boys;—John Alleyn directed that the scholars in the school endowed by him should have daily at their breakfast "a cup of beer" and at dinner and supper "beer without stint".

Girard College;—Stephen Girard, a merchant and mariner, who died in 1831, bequeathed \$2,000,000.00 for the founding of Girard College. He prescribed in detail exactly how the buildings should be built. The results, as told by the President of Girard College, were that "the main building had not been completed before the architect was well aware of the limitations of his plans—the reverberation of sound in these rooms—renders them wholly unfit for use—they are, however, constructed in exact accordance with the will, and these results were anticipated in the earliest stages of the work, but Mr. Girard left no discretionary power—we are compelled to take the letter of the will as our guide, let the results be what they might." It also specified in the will that practical navigation must be taught to every orphan. In 1931, the endowment exceeded \$77,000,000.00, but the hands of the trustees and teachers are tied by a will one hundred years old, and there is no way in which the college can be brought into line with modern, progressive institutions.

Hersey Fund;—Milton S. Hersey, who made his fortune out of chocolate, set aside almost the whole revenue of a profitable business as a permanent endowment for orphan boys. The endowment in its original form was estimated at \$60,000,000.00. Under the terms of the gift the larger part of the earnings from the Hersey business will be added to the original fund. One year these earnings exceeded \$4,000,000.00. In a decade the Hersey capital is likely to be \$100,000,000.00. The Hersey endowment, established in 1923, provides a home and school at Hersey, Pa., where the white, healthy, orphan boys of the county may be admitted for care and instruction. The boys of Pennsylvania are next eligible, then the boys of the whole country. Other homes may be erected. But the fundamental provisions will apply, although the social practice of caring for children has greatly altered and in future years we may have so few waifs within the Hersey restrictions that the philanthropists purpose will become impossible of fulfillment.

Daughters of Railroad Men;—John E. Thompson, President of the Pennsylvania Railroad, believing there would always be a heavy loss of life in connection with railroading, left a provision in his will for the establishment of an orphanage for girls whose fathers had been killed or fatally injured while on duty operating trains. Railroad accidents have since shown a sharp decline. A few years ago Mr. Thompson's orphanage placed advertisements in many publications in order to find any orphans who might be qualified for admittance to the institution. Twelve were found and admitted.

A will is a will and the law insists on carrying out its bequests exactly as stated, and if that is impossible, then the fund lies idle or is frequently wasted in expensive litigation, while many of our modern charitable services suffer for want of funds to meet present needs.

The question immediately arises; How does the Foundation or Community Trust safeguard donors to charity against falling into such pitfalls?

FIRST, the purposes for which the Fund may be used are general in character. Institutions and organizations come and go. General charitable purposes do not. Neither does the Foundation, it is permanent.

SECOND, the constitution of the Foundation is such that the wishes of the donor, both with respect to the selection of the trust company who will take charge of his donation, and the beneficiaries who will receive the annual income therefrom, may be carried out. But it gives the Advisory Board of the Foundation *discretionary power to depart from the donor's wishes in both respects after his death*, if such a course is advisable. In other words the Foundation takes the place of the donor and does exactly as he would do in his lifetime, if the charity or the welfare object which he had supported ceased to operate for any reason whatever or to warrant his support, namely, use the money for some other charitable or welfare object.

No one can foresee the future, but those who make their bequests under the Community Trust plan, whether the particular objects they favor be specified or not, may be assured there will be no waste of principal or income and that their gifts will continue to function and to render the largest service possible.

OPERATIONS TO DATE.

In its short life, The Winnipeg Foundation has disbursed income in excess of \$300,000.00, in support of charitable endeavor, the greater part of which has been distributed in the past four years. It interests citizens in bequeathing a part or the residue of their estates to it, after providing as they may desire for dependants, or to name the Foundation as the beneficiary, subject to the life interest of individuals. In the community, the "Foundation" and not the separate charities has now become the known channel for gifts and bequests, a channel through which a collective or bulk gift or bequest is made for the collective benefit of the charities. Rarely a year goes by without some new trust or estate reaching its hands for charitable purposes and a background of further wills and trusts to come into effect in the future is constantly being built up.

And so, because the Founder of The Winnipeg Foundation, the late Mr. W. F. Alloway, had the vision and the faith to believe that what he began others would add to; because he had the unselfishness to name the Foundation after his community, and because he outlined a plan of operation and administration, of enduring soundness, the Foundation has found increasing favour in the public mind. It has been a tower of strength in the community in these strenuous days, giving wisely of its means, that needy children be fed, clothed and cared for; that aged feet fast approaching the border land be permitted to tread that path in peace and plenty; that the sick be cared for; the blind helped through their dark days and young feet straying into forbidden paths, by experienced and loving supervision be set once again upon the straight and narrow highway.

May the complement of The Winnipeg Foundation soon be found in every Canadian city.

CANADIAN COMMUNITY CHESTS EXCEED 1933 TOTALS.

The Community Chests and Welfare Federations of Canada more than held their own in 1934 campaign results with a total of \$2,898,753 reported to date. Ten of the twelve Federations exceeded last year's totals, the Federation des Oeuvres de Charite Canadiennes-Francaises of Montreal (the second youngest federation of the Canadian group) exceeded its previous year's total by \$105,685. Altogether, with returns still incomplete from several cities, the grand total for 1934 campaigns exceeded the previous year's results by \$137,185.

The figures tabulated below show the amounts raised in private subscriptions in the campaigns of 1933 and 1934. In one or two cases these figures will differ from published results, where the objective was set at a figure which included government grants or other sources of income, as well as private subscription. This was the case in Winnipeg. Ottawa's objective of \$150,000 last year included \$25,000 carried over from another fund.

	*Raised 1934.	Raised 1933.
Halifax Community Chest.....	\$ 61,000	\$ 57,061
Montreal :		
Federated Charities.....	700,019	716,558
Federation of Catholic Charities.....	180,190	171,698
Federation of Jewish Philanthropies....	266,000	265,000
Federation des Oeuvres de Charite Canadiennes-Francaises.....	289,020	183,335
Toronto :		
Federation for Community Service.....	443,232	427,256
Catholic Charities.....	103,318	107,618
Federation of Jewish Philanthropies....	65,000	58,000
Ottawa Federated Charities.....	136,957	135,056
Hamilton Community Chest.....	91,500	90,000
Winnipeg Community Chest.....	270,000	266,000
Vancouver Welfare Federation.....	305,550	297,019
	<u>\$2,911,786</u>	<u>\$2,774,601</u>

Only two of the organizations—the Catholic Charities of Montreal and the Community Chest of Winnipeg—actually reached the objectives set before their campaign workers this year, but the majority have expressed satisfaction in that they seem to have consolidated their position and checked the recent downward trend in subscriptions.

The Canadian results correspond closely with the American experience. The recent bulletin of the Community Chests and Councils, Inc., declares that "Community Chests have stemmed the tide of retreat in giving this fall. This is the outstanding significance of the campaigns." The tabulated results of 187 Community Chests affiliated with this organization showed that they had raised in 1934 a grand total of \$39,618,912 or practically the same amount as in 1933.

The achievements of both Canadian and American campaigns appear all the more remarkable when considered in the light of the shrunken incomes of subscribers during the depression years. The Community Chest movement, which has been largely a growth of the last ten years in Canada, has perhaps been put to its first real test in the past four. It is significant that four new Community Chests have emerged from the depression years—Vancouver Welfare Federation, the Montreal Catholic Charities, the French Canadian Federation of Montreal and the Ottawa Federated Charities. On the whole our Canadian federations have succeeded in maintaining essential community services at levels reasonably sufficient up to now, in spite of financial difficulties throughout the country, and the tremendously increased burden thrust upon them. Their more recent campaign totals in some cases represent a one hundred per cent increase over the amount raised in earlier appeals. The achievements of those most recently organized deserve special mention. They have never known a "pre-depression" campaign. The record of the French Canadian Federation in Montreal has already been referred to. The Ottawa Federation has bettered its first campaign result by a small margin. The Montreal Catholic Charities have made steady and continuous progress in campaign results since their first campaign in 1930. In five depression campaigns they have bettered their first campaign result of \$103,000 by almost seventy-five per cent.

Vancouver has also made a remarkable achievement in five depression campaigns. Commencing with 36 member agencies which had raised an aggregate of less than \$150,000 from approximately 4,000 known subscribers, the Vancouver Federation succeeded in raising \$262,571 from 20,520 subscribers in its first campaign. Now the Federation reports 42 member agencies, over 24,000 subscribers and a campaign total of \$305,550 for its 1934 drive.

Almost all of the Canadian group have reported increased levels of giving and a progressive rise in the number of subscribers during the depression years.

*NOTE—The comparative tabulations refer to the actual year of campaign. The campaign in each case is to raise funds for the operation of federated agencies in the ensuing twelve months, i. e. the 1934 campaign raises the funds for 1935's disbursements.



DELINQUENCY AND RELATED SERVICES

THE BOSTON JUVENILE COURT FROM THE INSIDE

Address to New Hampshire Social Workers, by
JOHN F. PERKINS, Justice, Boston Juvenile Court.

EDITORIAL NOTE.—Dr. Glueck's study of one thousand juvenile delinquents dealt with in the Boston Juvenile Court has aroused such wide interest among delinquency workers throughout Canada that there seemed some justification in offering our readers Mr. Perkins' practical outline of some of the very definite problems with which all those in this field must contend.

Referring to the sensational feature of the general publicity arising from this study and the comments that 88.2% of the cases treated by court and clinic were failures, i.e., were arrested again within five years, most of them for serious crimes, Judge Perkins states :

"Rarely is it pointed out that the cases studied were not typical of the total work of the court, and that as the Gluecks point out 'only when he felt really puzzled or saw that the juvenile before him obviously had some physical or mental handicap would be (Judge Cabot) refer him to the clinic for examination.' It is of this group that the study was made, and to which all the figures and percentages apply. The simple cases, the cases which seemed free from complications and could be filed at once, or seemed likely to be corrected by probation were not sent to the clinic and were not studied. No one knows what results a study of all the cases brought to the court would have disclosed. Furthermore the cases studied occurred during the early part of Judge Cabot's term of service and before he had had sufficient experience to enable him to predict the probability of success or failure. The Gluecks have an interesting chapter on this phase of the work. Obviously in any group of juvenile delinquents from the poorest sections of a large city, there is a considerable percentage that have criminal, vicious or defective parents and have grown up with such poor standards and bad habits that delinquency is deeply rooted in them. And if instead of sending this type to the clinic, Judge Cabot had decided to send the more hopeful, and to concentrate the efforts of the court and clinic on those that seemed reformable, the results of the study might have been very different. In short, the significance of the investigation is confined to those boys who were puzzling and defective and therefore sent to the clinic, and cannot be regarded as a test of the work of the court as a whole or of juvenile courts in general. For if instead of being in Boston, Judge Cabot's court had been in another community like Newton, for example, the probabilities are that a much higher percentage of success would have been secured.

"Of course the publicity which has been given to Juvenile Courts and the misleading impression which has been made will lead to much discussion and controversy. This is very desirable for it should result in a better understanding regarding the functions, possibilities and limitations of a juvenile court and bring about a more intelligent and better co-ordinated attack on the whole problem of juvenile delinquency."

WHAT THE JUVENILE COURT REALLY IS

I propose, therefore, to describe the function of a juvenile court and what it reasonably can be expected to accomplish, and to give a picture of the actual machinery and its way of working so that you may get an idea of what its problems are from a practical standpoint.

Unfortunately the idea of the juvenile court was oversold. Students of children who got into trouble came to the conclusion that the methods

employed by the adult courts were unsatisfactory and often actually aggravated the evils they were intended to prevent. A few juvenile courts were created. They had some strikingly successful cases. To extend this better method of handling children it was necessary to arouse public opinion, and the successes were described to gatherings of socially minded people and written up in magazines until many who were ignorant of actual conditions conceived the idea that such cases were the rule rather than the exception. Panaceas are alluring and the tales of striking success enabled many kindly persons to settle back comfortably with relief that at last the vaguely disturbing problem of juvenile delinquency had been satisfactorily solved. Consequently it was something of a shock to read in the headlines that 88% of juvenile court and clinic boys became criminals later on.

What is a juvenile court? Is it something new and radical, a revolutionary invention like the telephone, or is it simply an improvement, a device to do something that had been done before, a little better? Obviously it is merely an improvement. Always there have been courts to protect society from people who broke its laws. The juvenile court was a device more intelligently designed to deal with children than were the adult courts which previously had dealt with them but no new function was created. It was simply an improved mechanism for performing the same function.

The court can do one of three things. It can put a boy on probation, place him in a foster home, or send him to the reform school. But none of these things is new. Adult courts had been doing them all long before the idea of a juvenile court existed. Evidently then the difference, if any, must be in the manner of doing them, and as the main work of the court consists of handling boys on probation, let us consider what probation is.

PROBATION

Broadly speaking, probation is simply a chance given to a delinquent to cure his faults himself without removing him from his home. After being brought to court, he is returned to the same home and environment in which he developed his delinquent tendencies, and presumably is subjected to the same forces which made him delinquent. The probability of his cure depends on the amount of counteracting forces the court is able to bring to bear.

If probation is merely a formal matter requiring him to report at regular intervals for a certain number of months, its influence is likely to be small. But if the probation officer keeps after him, knows what he is doing at home, and at school, makes him engage in wholesome recreation and keep away from bad company, the influence may be powerful. This is especially true if the parents can be made to co-operate, and the probation officer understands the boy and gains his liking and respect.

If after investigation or after a test period it appears that there is no chance of the boy's curing himself at home, he can be placed in a foster home or sent to a reform school. The decision as to which course to pursue is important, but once made, the direct influence of the court ceases.

DISTINCTIONS BETWEEN JUVENILE AND ADULT COURTS

Briefly, the main differences between the juvenile court and the adult courts to which it succeeded are these:—Annoying technicalities are eliminated; the judge is free from the serious legal problems which inevitably occupy the adult judge's mind, and therefore can devote his whole time and attention to the children who come before him, and to the work of the probation officers; and the probation officers make a more thorough study of the children on probation, bring new force to bear while they are still in the plastic age and supervise them more closely than has been the custom in adult courts.

It is obvious, however, that the effect of the juvenile court is limited, and in many cases cannot be expected to offset years of slack discipline, bad habits and poor standards. Nor can it make poor human material into good human material. This is vividly clear. Of course the juvenile court is not a cure-all. There are no cure-alls. It is merely one of the short steps forward by which civilization advances, like community nursing. Why should we assume that the juvenile court is responsible for the whole community? It did not give the boy before it criminal, vicious or defective parents; it did not provide him with a broken home, or extreme poverty; it did not place him where he could get no wholesome recreation, nor did it force street life upon him. It had no control over him or any contact with him whatever before he came to court. To say that the juvenile court is a failure because it often fails to cure the boys brought before it, is just as reasonable as it would be to say that a hospital is a failure because it often fails to save the cases of advanced blood poisoning which are brought to it. Inevitably there are many hopeless cases, but it helps.

TREATMENT

The point is just here. In the cases of a large number of boys who have poor inheritance, bad homes and have grown up in unwholesome neighborhoods, with poor standards and no discipline, it is idle to expect them to be able to correct their faults under the same conditions in which they became delinquent even when given most intensive probation work. Only by removing them to wholesome surroundings, and subjecting them to constructive influences twenty-four hours a day is there any hope of a cure. And such ideal conditions rarely exist. Both foster homes and reform schools present serious difficulties, so failures are unavoidable. But there are many boys whose chance of making good at home is promising, if they have the benefit of good probation work. If a boy can succeed at home rather than away from home, it is a far better way for him to do it. He learns to live successfully under the very conditions in which he became delinquent; whereas the boy who seems to have been cured in a foster home or at a reform school may relapse when he comes home and is again subjected to his former temptations. Besides, it involves no separation from his family, and no record of having been at a reform school, and you can provide intensive probation for a boy for 1/10 of what it costs in a foster home and 1/20 of the cost in a reform school. It is either a ten or twenty to one bet and it's worth taking.

THE CLINIC

So far I have said nothing of the clinic as an adjunct to the court. In recent years psychology and psychiatry have been burrowing into

the causes of human behavior and have made many interesting and valuable discoveries. It was pointed out that the well known principle, i.e. if we wish to get rid of a bad effect, we must remove the cause, applies just as much to penology as to any other branch of human affairs, and that we must know what the cause is before we can remove it. Guidance clinics which make a comprehensive study of the child, mentally, physically and emotionally, and get a picture of his history, development and surroundings have been set up in many parts of the country. Dr. William Healy, one of the directors of the Judge Baker Guidance Center, formerly the Judge Baker Foundation, was the pioneer in this movement. Intensely difficult behavior problems were found to be actuated by causes utterly unsuspected until these were skilfully uncovered and dug out by psychiatrists. As a result of treatment the children often became normal and friendly.

Unfortunately here again the panacea motif became dominant. The value and power of psychiatry was exaggerated to the point of magic and like the Juvenile Court, psychiatry was oversold to the public. The idea spread that delinquency was solely due to maladjustment or conflict and that all the court had to do was to send a boy to the clinic and have the maladjustment or conflict removed, like having a tooth pulled by a dentist.

TYPICAL PROBLEMS

Let us look at the actual situation. The great bulk of the children who are brought to court come as the result of bad discipline and bad habits. Generally the family is large, six, eight, sometimes ten children living in a few rooms. Under such conditions the home is merely a place to eat and sleep. Inevitably the children must be out of the house. With playgrounds crowded or nonexistent, they pick up the street interests that are most attractive. Naturally there is nothing more exciting than breaking into a store, or snatching things and running. And when this excitement is coupled with pleasurable returns—things to eat and money for the Movies—it is hard to resist the temptation to keep on doing it. If it continues for several years before arrest—as it usually does—the only inference to be drawn by the boy is that he has been careless, and that if he is careful he need not be caught for another five years.

Last July four boys ranging from eight to ten years old were brought in for breaking into a store. All were of low mental ability, and having found them delinquent I continued the case for two weeks to see what could be done. During these two weeks they were arrested three times for additional breaks. All four had been stealing since they were five years old. Obviously no amount of talk would affect them. Abstract ideas were beyond them, and they had a great and irresistible urge to indulge in habits of long standing. Only a complete break of their whole attitude toward life offered any chance of success and even in the most favorable foster homes that chance is thin. They were all placed in foster homes, and there have been many similar cases. (Judge Perkins then cites many typical cases, some "successes", some failures to indicate the "run of mill" work of any court, and proceeds).

These are just random cases. What can psychiatrists do? They can diagnose the trouble and they can say what ought to be corrected. But in most cases what can they do about it? I have read Bobby Jones'

book on golf, and many kind friends have told me accurately and emphatically what is wrong with my game. Can I play golf like Bobby Jones?

All that a clinic can do, except in a rare case, is to help the court and probation officers to understand the child better, and to suggest what treatment is desirable. But that does not mean that this treatment is obtainable or that it would be necessarily successful if it were. I don't want to minimize the value of the clinic. In many cases the better understanding it gives may make the difference between success and failure; but it cannot be held responsible for failure.

THE COURT'S RESOURCES

Now let us see what the court's machinery is, to get a clear picture of the problem from a practical standpoint.

In round numbers we have about a thousand cases a year, nine hundred boys and one hundred girls, or an average of something over three cases a day. Of course they do not come in even numbers day by day. Sometimes we get ten or twelve cases, sometimes none. Recently we had twenty-one new cases in a day. Besides the new cases, there are frequently boys and girls who are brought in by probation officers for not doing their best on probation or because some new problem has arisen, or their cases are ready to be filed. There may be parents to talk to. In addition, as a report on the progress of each child on probation is required at intervals of from one to three months, according to the nature of the case, there are always reports to be made by probation officers. In the afternoon parents or children may have to be seen or special situations discussed with probation officers. On Wednesday afternoons the Judge goes to staff conferences at the Judge Baker Guidance Center to consider the cases sent to the clinic for study.

PROBATION PROCEDURE

There are four probation officers (three men and one woman). The number of cases on probation runs about three hundred boys, i.e. one hundred per man, and fifty girls. Consider what this means. As a rule all three men have to be in Court during the morning, because there is usually a boy from each of their respective districts on trial, and it is important to see how the boy acts in court, and know everything possible about him from the beginning. After court is over the Probation Officer must investigate the new cases by visiting the home and the school, and must dictate what he learns for the case history. Sometimes, very frequently in fact, he must study reports on the family by other agencies or in the other courts. Each week he has all his boys report to him, fifty on each of two afternoons. Each week he gets a school report and reports from the directors of boys' clubs or settlement houses to which the boys belong. If a boy, is sent to the Lyman School or the Industrial School at Shirley or a girl to Lancaster, the probation officer must take him and this kills an afternoon. (The Boston Juvenile Court is the only court in the state where the Probation Officer is required to do this.) When the clinic has a staff conference on a boy, his probation officer is supposed to be present. Whenever a boy is arrested at night, a probation officer is called to the Police Station to determine whether the boy should be released to his parents or taken to a detention home, and frequently it seems impossible to get a boy to go to the hospital for som

medical treatment of which he is in need or to the Judge Baker Guidance Center, unless the probation officer takes him by the hand and leads him there. Furthermore a home visit should be made once a month to find out how the boy is behaving at home, and to induce the parents to use reasonable intelligence in dealing with him. As a result of such visits, conditions are often discovered which make a call on the Welfare Department or some other agency imperative. Reciprocity with the schools means many conferences with principals and teachers. Remember also that although the jurisdiction of the Boston Juvenile Court is limited to the North, West and South Ends of Boston and the Back Bay, boys from all over Greater Boston come into this section to commit offences, are tried by the court and have to be supervised by its probation officers. This vastly increases the territory which must be covered. After he has performed the above duties, the probation officer has all the rest of his time to himself.

In the case of girls the situation is similar, but somewhat different in this respect. As there is only one woman probation officer, she has to cover the whole of Greater Boston. There are no adequate facilities at the court for reporting, it is often unwise for the girls to come down town alone, and therefore most of the work is done by home and school visits.

It needs no mathematician to demonstrate that the mere physical demands on the probation officer are more than he can adequately meet, and that his opportunity for direct personal influence on the children is limited. How they get to know them and their parents as well as they do,—for they get to know them very well,—is a mystery to me. It means that they do it out of hours and on their own time. One cannot speak too highly of their unselfishness and devotion.

When a boy comes to court for the first time, naturally he is on the defensive, and fearful of what may happen to him. Fortunately only in the rarest case is there any question of his delinquency. Almost always he has been caught red-handed, and tells what he has done freely. Sometimes, usually to save his face in front of his parents, he tells a ridiculous story; but when they are asked to leave the room and he is alone with the Judge and is asked "Now tell me the truth. Did you do it?" he will say "Sure." Occasionally there will be a really tough boy who blandly denies everything even in the face of overwhelming evidence of the most concrete nature, but he is the rare exception.

At this first interview all that can be accomplished is to get the boy in a repentant frame of mind and fill him with good intentions. But we all know what happens to good intentions unless they are crystallized by action. So two or three weeks after his first appearance the boy is brought again to court, and a program laid out for him to follow. It is the duty of the probation officer to see that the boy follows the program, and if the boy fails to report or in any way shows that he is not in earnest, he is brought in and made to realize that the court means business.

THE COURT AND THE COMMUNITY BACKGROUND

Now, as I pointed out before, it is perfectly evident that the amount of direct personal attention which a probation officer can give to a child is limited. For the constructive activities, we must depend on what the community provides. The probation officer must delegate this part of the work to some existing agency.

And if, for example, better recreation seems to be what the boy needs, and there are no recreation facilities in the neighborhood where the boy lives, he does not get it. In the meantime he is back in the same home, subject to the same forces which made him delinquent. The only counteracting influences are his respect and liking for his probation officer and his dread of the reform school, but let me give an example to show that even this can be effective.

Nearly two years ago a boy came to court for stealing. He was found delinquent and put on probation. He did well enough at home and at school, but there were no playgrounds nearby, and stealing was the popular and almost universal form of sport. About two months later he was brought in again for stealing. I gave him a suspended sentence and made it clear that this was his last chance. Three months later he again appeared. "Well, Jimmy," I said, "You'll have to go to the Lyman School. You know what I told you last time. You've asked for it and you'll have to go." He stood looking at me for a minute. Then he said, "Judge, just give me one more chance." Of course, most boys make this same plea, and they are merely begging off, hoping to get by. But something about this boy was different. I said, "Do you mean it Jimmy?" He stuck out his hand, "Judge, it's a bet." "All right," said I, "It's a bet." That boy went for about a year on probation without slipping and I filed his case. I can't guarantee that he is cured permanently, for he lives in a very bad neighborhood, but I hope we steered him past the critical time.

I have said so much that is depressing that perhaps I should take time to tell one more encouraging story.

About a year ago a boy was in court for larceny. He was nice looking but rather sullen and unresponsive. On probation he did very well and his case was filed after last September. Shortly afterwards his mother came in and complained of him as a stubborn child. He was disagreeable and rebellious at home, would not help, and said he was an atheist and there was no God. I asked George about it. He admitted he was disagreeable to his mother and had little defense. So, on probation he went again, after promising he would try to be tactful and helpful at home. In my talk with him I found out that he was interested in painting pictures. The Probation Officer got specimens of his work, took them to the Boston Art Museum School and got him admitted to the Saturday morning classes, to start when the second half year began in February. A few weeks later the mother was back in court again, complaining that the boy was impossible, that he would not wash, that he would not wear a necktie, and that he had let his hair grow down over his collar. So I had another talk with George and told him that I knew a great many painters, that they all dressed well and were vigorous outdoor men, that they showed their artistic ability in their pictures not in their clothes or general appearance. George got the point. But not long afterwards the mother again appeared complaining. So I realized it was no use trying to keep him at home and asked the Catholic Charitable Bureau to take him. Father Barry gave him a good talking to, placed him in an architect's home, where the boy is fed drawing to his heart's content and is getting stimulating instruction. He is doing well in school, his atheistic ideas have evaporated, he goes regularly to church and Sunday school and he is the happiest boy you ever saw. He comes in occasionally and exactly resembles the Cheshire Cat.

THE REAL CHALLENGE.

I have tried to give you a picture of some of the problems with which the Boston Juvenile Court has to deal, and I hope you realize how ridiculous it is to pretend that the juvenile court claims to be a cure-all, and is a failure because it is not. I have tried to point out what the court's true function is, that probation is simply an effort to get the boy to cure himself at home with such help as the court, probation officers and social agencies can give, and that only a reasonable degree of success can be expected. The only other machinery available, foster homes and the reform schools present similar difficulties. Clearly the problem of Juvenile Delinquency is still with us. But it always will be, and it is a problem not of any one agency but of the whole community. And of one thing I am sure: that the probation officers of the Boston Juvenile Court are powerful influences for good in the communities in which they work; that they have a profound and beneficial effect on many boys who are on probation and prevent many boys who are not on probation from going wrong; that they comfort and reassure many, many parents and secure actual tangible aid for many families in distress. And they add a tone and strength to the community without which every one in it would be definitely the worse. It is in such people that hope of improvement lies, not merely probation officers, but social workers of all kinds. New schemes are constantly being suggested and new legislation asked for. But it is not more schemes or legislation that we chiefly need. It is more of the right kind of people. If we get them, successful methods will gradually evolve, for humanity improves not by legislation but by organic growth. Delinquency is like tuberculosis. You cannot remove the disease. You must build up resistance to it, tone up the human system. And deep in the heart of mankind is an element of vigorous life that responds and quickens when it comes in contact with fine character. If conditions are to get better, it must be by personal influence, by the effect of men and women of fine quality, integrity and devotion working in the unhealthy communities.

CRIME AND DELINQUENCY IN BRITAIN

Drunkenness in England and Wales has decreased by 50% from the average for the years 1925 to 1929: suicide has increased but murder decreased, though the population has increased.

Most disturbing, however, are the records of youths among convictions for larceny, housebreaking and shopbreaking. Of 6,700 individuals sentenced for housebreaking and shopbreaking, 33% were under 16 years of age; 55% under 21; and of 65,000 convicted of indictable offences, 21% were under 16 years and 43% under 21.

INDUSTRIAL SCHOOLS—BRITISH COLUMBIA

F. C. Boyes, M.A., the well-known principal of Alexandra School, Vancouver, with special training in psychology and physical culture, has been made Principal of the Provincial Industrial Schools of British Columbia, replacing Mr. D. B. Brankin. Mr. Boyes will actually direct the Boys' School at Coquitlam, but becomes also, supervising principal of the Girls' Industrial School, where Mrs. A. G. Westman remains as Superintendent.

Mr. Boyes' appointment follows the report of a departmental inquiry conducted by Col. E. C. Pepler, solicitor to the Department of the Provincial Secretary, and Prof. Coral Topping, Professor of Sociology, University of British Columbia.



LEISURE TIME AND EDUCATIVE ACTIVITIES

BRITISH COLUMBIA'S DEPARTURE.

CREATION OF DEPARTMENT OF PHYSICAL RECREATION

The Provincial Department of Education, through the instigation of its Minister, the Hon. G. M. Weir, has launched a province-wide recreational and physical education plan for young men and women from the ages of 16 and over, and who are, at the present time, without work. There are now night schools in Vancouver where men and women can follow up their mental education. This new division of activities is built upon the precept of the ancient Greeks that in a sound body will a sound mind be found.

Mr. Ian Eisenhardt is in charge of the programme, and contributes this article.

It is planned to start directed physical education and recreation for young men and women in as many school gymnasias as the budget will allow us. Already three centres have been opened in Vancouver, two in North and West Vancouver, and one in New Westminster with more than six hundred young persons enrolled.

No man can remain stationary, either he must grow—or he must wither. Discipline, Courage, and Condition are the very attributes of manhood. If the men and women of a nation keep in condition, keep their bodies strong and healthy, that nation will flourish; if they do not, that nation will decay.

At the present moment the nations are keenly alive to all health questions and there seems to be a universal agreement that physical culture is needed in order to build manly character and strength. And this physical education and recreation must be carried on all the time; it is not enough that children be given physical culture in the schools, that thousands of dollars be spent to build gymnasias and employ staffs, if these children do not follow up this education after school is over; it is only a waste of money. Man's life is three score years and ten, and the average person is between 15 and 17 when he leaves school. It is the duty of every man to keep physically fit, to be "tough" and in condition, and not just for a few years of his life but ALL HIS LIFE.

The ancient Greeks solved the question very efficiently; they simply killed the weaker children immediately after their birth. We cannot do that, humanity has taken a prodigious step forward and science has grown accordingly. We do not kill our weaklings any more but special provisions give them necessary care. But we have reached a stage where it will be necessary to stop and consider one of life's most vital questions—to make man "health" conscious. Our homes for mental care are full. There is a long waiting list in most hospitals and our jails are in a similar position. This must stop. A nation cannot continue to pour money into institutions without stopping to think how to cut down the number of cases which yearly go into these institutions. I have only praise for all such work, but I venture to say that, if only half the money which at present is spent in keeping up hospitals, mental homes, jails and similar institutions, were spent on keeping people in good condition, there is no doubt that present conditions would improve.

THE NEW PROVINCIAL PLAN

Young men and women leaving schools to-day may be unsuccessful for years in their search for work. What are they doing while they are "on the bench?" Many go to night schools and various other teaching institutions, but most of them are doing nothing at all. Both mentally and physically these young men and women are degenerating; "going to the dogs!" The new recreational and educational plan will prove the salvation of many.

Physical culture will be the base of all the classes, followed by sports and games, such as: Basketball, Volleyball, Boxing and Wrestling. Well qualified instructors will be in charge.

The aim of the work is really two-fold:—

First —To develop a body beautiful to the eye and efficient for civil life. The naturally efficient youth can be made more efficient. The naturally inefficient youth can be made at least passable, under the care of a skilful instructor.

Second —To make young men and women understand that health is their duty to the nation to which they belong.

The recreational youth centres will try to keep the youths off the streets, and through Club movements and Saturday night concerts will try to bring wholesome recreation to the youth of this city.

The recreational youth centres in Vancouver will build up a real community spirit among the young men and women. Here they will find an outlet for all their saved up energy; here they will make friends; and here they will be given an opportunity to learn how to work in co-operation; because to work under the leadership of fine young gymnastic teachers is an inspiration to any man or woman. To pull together in teams; to forget for the moment all individualism, will undoubtedly help to develop a fine type of manhood. The discipline and respect learned in these centres will prove most beneficial to the youths as well as to the country.

THE GREEK IDEAL

Pericles, one of the greatest statesmen of ancient Greece, knew the benefit the nation could reap from directed recreation. It was not just for the sake of keeping the people busy, or entertaining them, that gymnasia were built in old Athens, and that theatres were constructed to hold 15,000 people. There was an idea behind it. In the gymnasia men and women were taught to take pride in their bodies. They were taught also how to become more efficient to fight; not necessarily foreign armies but meanness, indifference, disease, and other foes of mankind. In the theatres festivals were produced, bringing forth the best virtues in life—loyalty to the nation, to the home, and to their fellow-citizens.

To the Greeks beauty did not imply a delicate maid clad in snowy drapery—it implied a perfectly shaped, bronzed, and developed youth, standing forth in his undraped manhood for a hard athletic battle; not beauty in innocence and weakness, but beauty in resourceful strength.

There is a little song, very popular, and very Greek:

"The best of gifts to mortal man is health;

The next, the bloom of beauty's matchless flower;

The third, is blameless and unfraudful wealth,

The fourth, with friends to spend youth's joyous hour."

OTHER EXPERIENCE

By the use of existing school gymnasia no great expenditures are necessary, and in a few years time this movement will have developed into one of the finest assets of this province. Other countries have done it before us. The Scandinavian countries, as well as Germany, have their "People High Schools", as they call them; bands of boys roaming around the country under leadership—"Wanderfögel" they call them. They have erected hostels at short distances where meals and beds are provided for nominal fees.

Danish and Swedish gymnastic systems are world known. England also sees the importance of directed recreation. Public school systems were long ago founded there, to which the English owe not only their successes in the world of sport, but also their great adaptability as colony and empire builders. The lessons of endurance and perseverance learned in many a hard fought match, or in a well run race on their playing fields have stood the English youths in good stead at the outposts of empire not once but time and time again. The lessons of self-reliance and quick decisions have been inculcated in the English nation from the earliest days of childhood, until now these have become almost hereditary instincts.

The youths in British Columbia will, through this new directed recreation, be able to keep themselves in condition and be prepared for whatever may come their way. Canada, a nation of many nationalities, has difficulties which European countries have not, but this youth movement affords one opportunity to gather in one effort youth of all races and creeds, and in unity is strength.

CANADA TO HAVE SOCIAL INSURANCE

Just as "Child and Family Welfare" goes to press, the Prime Minister of Canada, the Rt. Hon. R. B. Bennett, has placed notice of the following resolution on the Order paper of the House:

"That it is expedient to introduce a Bill to establish an Employment and Social Insurance Commission; to provide for a National Employment Service; for Insurance against unemployment; for aid to unemployed persons, and for other forms of Social Insurance and Security, and for purposes related thereto; and to provide for such contributions as may be necessary to carry into effect the proposed legislation."

PUBLIC WELFARE SERVICES

MEDICAL RELIEF IN OTTAWA

Through the courtesy of DR. GEORGE S. MACCARTHY

(Dr. MacCarthy is a member of the Public Welfare Board of Ottawa, a municipally appointed body, with a majority of citizen members, to which the administration of all unemployment relief within the City is entrusted).



In 1931, when the Dominion and Provincial Governments, issued the relief regulations governing Direct Relief, these did not provide that medical men be compensated for their services.

The provincial Medical Association, realizing the urgent need of relief payments for medical care for medical men in different parts of this Province, appealed to the Minister of Health for Ontario, and through him, the Government, by Order-in-Council, included in their regulations governing direct Relief, certain medical payments which might be made by municipalities. No part of this payment is, however, chargeable to the Dominion Government, which even yet, does not recognize medical services and supplies, as part of the direct Relief scheme, for which it assumes liability.

Under the Order-in-Council, issued by the Ontario Government, doctors performing services in connection with relief recipients, might charge half the prevailing rate for such services, which in the case of Ottawa, and the Province generally, amounts to \$1.00 per visit to the doctor's office, \$1.50 where the doctor visits the patient and \$12.50 for obstetrical cases, this being half the prevailing rate. No doctor's account may exceed the sum of \$100.00 monthly, as far as Government reimbursement is concerned. If it should be in excess of that amount, the excess will not be paid.

The Public Welfare Board of Ottawa allowed these privileges, available under these regulations to practitioners under certain conditions; all cases were to be registered at the Civic Relief Office and a city nurse was to be sent to find out if doctors were really necessary in each case.

FIRST YEAR'S OPERATIONS

During the first year, our office clerk received many complaints from patients and doctors,—patients demanding special diets, patent medicines, special remedies or special doctors; and doctors complaining of favoritism being shown in the distribution of cases. The Board discovered that most of the work was being controlled by four or five men, so it was decided to have a committee of three, appointed by the Ottawa Medico-Chirurgical Society to take charge of a "Panel" and to consider complaints from the medical men. If any man did not live up to the rules of the Public Welfare Board, this committee was empowered to remove his name from the panel.

THE PRESENT SYSTEM

There are now two Panels, one a list of general practitioners with seventy names and the other an obstetrical list of thirty names.* Any qualified registered practitioner, may have his name on both lists. Names are arranged alphabetically, and five practitioners, in rotation, are on duty, day and night, for a week. If any man cannot accept a call, the one next on the list takes his place. By this arrangement every man has a chance of one week's work every two months. Four days before taking duty, each man is notified to prepare for service. The men on the obstetrical list are also called in rotation, but an effort is always made to send one who is familiar with the pre-natal care of the particular case.

City nurses take all calls for service from 8 a.m. to 5 p.m. each day. Their duties consist of first aid in all cases of emergency. They are expected to assist to make patients comfortable in every possible way. A nurse may call an ambulance and send the patient to the hospital for special treatment, and always calls a doctor when necessary.

Doctors treating patients on relief in hospital are not paid for their services.

DRUGS AND SUPPLIES

During the first few months the charges for drugs and medical supplies were exorbitant.

After a study of costs of British Pharmacopeia Preparations, an offer was made to the Druggists' Association to pay on prescriptions according to the special schedule printed hereunder. This offer was accepted and physicians were advised to order "B.P." preparations. One official of the Druggists' Association offered his services free of charge to check all prescriptions each month. One druggist was suspended for over-charging and since then, all accounts have been correctly rendered.

When the druggists report a medical man for ordering proprietary preparations, the Medical Committee advise this practitioner at once, and check up with him.

If any special preparations are allowed by druggists, the patient or his friends must pay the difference. Frequently the druggists, at a loss, give special preparations in order to please the doctor or patient.

SYSTEM ACCEPTABLE

The medical men on the panels, now working under a committee of their own confreres, instead of under clerks of the Welfare Board, are well satisfied. They feel that every man is given a fair chance for duty and they do not resent orders from the Medical Committee men. They assist the Public Welfare Board in many non-medical ways, as well as shouldering the chief worries of this special department.

A report from Dr. C. W. Kelly, the Chairman of this Special Committee states,—

"The system is running very smoothly. All doctors are well satisfied with the method and there do not appear to be any complaints in this regard except from one or two. As regards complaints received by us from the various men, I might state that in

* There are approximately 170 active medical practitioners in Ottawa.

the main, there are only three, i.e., useless calls, having nurses see cases first, and emergency calls. For example, a doctor may be called in the evening, so the patient may obtain a new pair of boots, additional fuel, or an increase in diet. It will be noted here that the majority of these calls are at night when there is no investigation by the nurse.

We allocate the men their work, try to settle any disputes which have been minor or of no consequences, and as far as we can advise the girls at the Relief Office when they are worried as to what to do in certain cases. We also try to keep all prescriptions "B.P." This latter has been a big item, but it is very easily controlled as we will not, except in extreme circumstances, allow any thing to go through that is not official. It is very amusing and very interesting, particularly when our relief recipients threaten us with all sorts of dire ends, for not granting their requests".

We are of the opinion that the Ottawa System of Medical Relief is satisfactory to the Public Welfare Board, the medical profession and those on relief.

The following are the prices accepted by the Public Welfare Board and the Medical Committee as prices to be charged by the Ottawa Retail Druggists for relief medical supplies:

LIQUIDS		POWDERS & CAPSULES		OINTMENTS	
½ oz.....		½ doz.....	25c.	½ oz.....	25c.
1 oz.....	25c.	1 doz.....	40c.	1 oz.....	35c.
2 oz.....	30c.	2 doz.....	65c.	2 oz.....	50c.
3 oz.....	35c.			4 oz.....	65c.
4 oz.....	45c.			8 oz.....	75c.
6 oz.....	60c.				
8 oz.....	75c.				
LOTIONS		BULK Pd's		PILLS & TABLETS	
4 oz.....	30c.	3 oz.....	50c.	1 doz.....	25c.
6 oz.....	40c.	4 oz.....	65c.	2 doz.....	40c.
8 oz.....	50c.			3 doz.....	50c.
16 oz.....	75c.				
LINIMENTS		EYE, EAR & NOSE DROPS		SUPPOS.	
1 oz.....	15c.	2 dr.....		½ doz.....	40c.
		½ oz.....	25c.	1 doz.....	65c.
		1 oz.....	40c.		
HOUSEHOLD DRUGS					
Boracic Acid.....	25c. lb.	Cod Liver Oil.....	65c. lb.		
Camphorated Oil.....	25c. 3 ozs.	Liq. Petrolatum.....	65c. lb.		
Castor Oil.....	15c. bottle.	Olive Oil.....	25c. 3 oz. bottle.		
Cascara Arom.....	25c. 3 ozs.	Oil Wintergreen.....	15c. oz.		
Epsom Salts.....	15c. lb; 10c. pkg.	Tr. Iodine.....	15c. oz.		
Linseed Meal.....	15c. lb.	Creoline.....	25c. 4 oz.		
Seidlitz Powders.....	3 for 10c.				

SHELTER OR RENTAL ALLOWANCES

MURIEL TUCKER, Secretary, Division on Family Welfare,
Canadian Council on Child and Family Welfare.

In 1933 the Council endeavoured, through the preparation of sample food budgets and schedules, to offer some assistance to public and private agencies in their problems of calculating food allowances for dependent families. This was followed later by a short memorandum on minimum clothing provisions. In March 1934, a special compilation was issued, covering relief schedules in forty-nine cities. These various publications led to several inquiries as to rental policies and rental allowances prevailing in Canada. It is in an attempt to offer some considerations of possible value in this connection that this memorandum on Rental Allowance has been prepared by the Family Welfare Division.

The assumption of responsibility for the payment of a sum of money in exchange for shelter accommodation for unemployed and destitute persons, for four years has been the subject of a great deal of discussion and controversy in Canadian communities.

Four main problems stand out and make this subject of rent allowances particularly difficult.

First, the urgent necessity of providing for the destitute not only a shelter sufficiently well-built to withstand the weather, but a shelter that meets the minimum of health requirements, and does not force the family to abandon all its previous housing standards.

Second, the problem of the landlord who has invested his money in property and feels that he can legitimately expect a certain minimum return in some small degree commensurate with the return that might be anticipated from any other investment.

Third, the difficulty of an accurate investigation of the need for rental assistance, and the ease with which relief agencies can be exploited by both client and landlord.

Fourth, the enormous amount of money required to handle the problem even in an inefficient and spasmodic way.

EVOLUTION OF PRESENT POLICIES

In so-called "normal" times, it was possible for certain types of seasonal workers and casual labourers to go through the winter without paying rent or being given any outside assistance in meeting it. This could be "managed" because of the likelihood of work being obtainable in the spring, and because of the poor type of house usually occupied by workers with small and irregular incomes. Taxes on such property were low, and if the landlord did evict a family in the middle of winter, the chances were remote that he would get anyone else who could pay rent regularly. Except in cases of prolonged illness or desertion, or in cases of chronic dependency in large cities, the payment of rent rarely entered into the picture of relief.

For a good many months after the onset of the depression, the old idea still held sway. The consideration of the rent question was postponed even though an increasing number of skilled and professional workers, living in good districts were being added week by week to the relief lists. There is little doubt, however, that considerable help was given from Churches, Fraternal Societies, employers and relatives. Finally, with the rapidly mounting costs of food, fuel, and clothing relief, taxes had to be increased. With this increase, and with the probability of the head of the family obtaining regular work getting

week by week more remote, landlords were forced to demand some rent payment or evictions were executed in short order. As the families living in the better type of house continued to swell the relief lists, a good many relief agencies, both public and private, made one payment to "help the family over the emergency," in the firm belief that in two or three months the tide would inevitably turn. Then small payments were made with the aid of municipal funds and private donations, the size and frequency of these payments depending on the size of the family, the demanding attitude of the landlord, and the amount of help considered possible or desirable for each individual family. A small amount of assistance with relief construction work was given to municipalities in 1930 from two or three of the provincial governments.

During the first half of 1930, the Dominion Government was bombarded with requests from municipalities for assistance, and finally, in September, the Unemployment Relief Act was passed, providing a considerable sum of money to be used for the construction of public works as a relief measure. In August 1931, the Dominion and Provincial Governments agreed to assume "half the expense of approved municipal relief works and two-thirds of direct relief expenditures." (a) Some municipalities were still unable to meet their share, so in 1932 the Federal Government agreed that where the municipality was unable to meet the $33\frac{1}{3}$ contribution, it would, on the advice of the Province, share equally with the province the difference between what the municipality could pay and the total expenditure.

In some rural areas rent was paid now by relief agencies for the first time. In the majority of districts, this was because of the comparatively small number of families requiring this assistance, and the greater opportunities afforded in the country to "work off" debts, or to make part payment in kind, if not in cash. In Southern Saskatchewan, where a particular situation had developed owing to drought conditions and several years of poor harvests, more drastic and comprehensive relief measures were necessary. In general, certain clearly specified regulations were adopted. A minimum amount of rent was promised, to be paid only in an emergency when eviction was almost certain. About this time the same regulations were extended to cover mortgage interest payments if foreclosure was threatened. The amount paid depended on the amount of the taxes owing, and was only paid after every effort had been made to secure an extension of time.

NON-RESIDENT FAMILIES

As an outcome of the unwillingness or inability of some rural districts to make definite allocations for shelter assistance, and the more regular payment made by many urban centres, an unfortunate situation has developed.

When a destitute family living in the country finds itself faced with the winter, and with great uncertainty as to how much help it can secure, it moves "to the city." Sometimes a supply of vegetables, fruit, eggs, etc., is brought in to augment the food supply. Friends or relatives in the country may, during the autumn, send in food, and by begging or picking up odd jobs the family may "get by" until they can qualify as residents of the city, and secure direct relief. The shorter the residence period demanded by the city, the greater the encourage-

(a) Unemployment and Relief in Ontario—H. M. Cassidy.

ment given to families to move in. Coupled with this is the fact that a strong appeal is made, not only to private individuals, but to many private organizations as well, by a family which is destitute and "not eligible for city help."

A variety of reasons is given by the family as to the cause of the change being made: "foreclosure of mortgage"; "came to look for work"; "easier to get help in the city"; "more houses to be had in the city"; "came to be near relatives," etc. In some few instances the family originally came from the city, and really had its roots there. In the big majority of cases, however, the family came because little or no provision had been made for its re-establishment at home, and knowing nothing of the city, its members hoped for "great things." On such families city influences are bad, and the kind of environment which necessity usually forces upon them, often leads to a gradual abandonment of the previous living standards they may have had.

Both the city and country suffer when this movement citywards takes place. When the families are definitely country born and bred, the movement stimulates an altogether too frequent occurrence in Canada—the depletion of the countryside. On the other hand the city is obliged to feed and shelter, for an indefinite period, families who have no claim whatsoever on the relief resources provided by its citizens. Moreover, the "poor type" family, though probably no asset to the rural community, and therefore sometimes encouraged on this account to "try their luck" elsewhere, is infinitely less capable of adjusting satisfactorily to the life of the community when faced with the speed, competition and complexity of influences found in city life.

Both the city and country are jointly responsible for the magnitude of this problem. The country, through lack of constructive effort, fails to rehabilitate families that have no means of livelihood, or who have lost their homes. The city usually refuses to assist non-residents, and will take no responsibility either for communicating with the place from which they came, or for providing transportation to enable them to return; except in rare cases of severe mental or physical illness.

That the countryside is actually losing out by this migration, and the city's relief burden is being definitely increased, is possible of proof from statistics in certain areas. In the City of Ottawa, the largest city in Eastern Ontario, and on a provincial boundary, there were in May 1933, 5,040 families on relief. Of those, 928 had been life-long residents of the City of Ottawa, 3,265 had ordinarily and legally become residents of the city prior to 1928, but no less than 847 heads of families had established residence in Ottawa in the period from 1928 onwards.

By a recognition of the extent of this shift of population, both rural districts and urban centres can do much to prevent it. The rural area could make some systematic plan for re-establishing families that find themselves adrift, and giving them adequate assistance until they are again self-supporting. And the city could arrange, with the co-operation of private organizations, churches and individual citizens, to be kept informed of non-resident destitute families who seek assistance from any source, to communicate with the place of their legal residence, and make provision for their return home. From the financial point of view, the outlay for transportation is spent three or four times over in the relief given over a period of years.

The absence of any adequate "shelter policy" on the part of the rural or suburban community on the one hand, and of any "return transportation," system on the part of the urban community on the other, are jointly largely responsible for this situation of "drifting families."

SOME POLICY ESSENTIAL

These are but some of the by-products of a "laissez-faire" policy on the shelter problem. There are, however, both in the United States and Canada, a growing number of relief agencies and organizations who after trying out a variety of policies, and makeshift methods of solving the shelter problem are now of the opinion that some systematic arrangement for the regular payment of rent in cases of unemployment and destitution, is not only a saving of money over a period of years, but is an integral part of an efficient relief programme.

SOME ARGUMENTS FOR AND AGAINST REGULAR RENT PAYMENTS

In formulating rent policies, many of these arguments have been brought forward time and again, and changes in policy have been effected or postponed as these arguments have or have not been considered valid or practicable. On the side of a policy of regular payments, there is advanced, evidence of :

1. The disastrous effects of insecurity (due to non-payment), both on the man and on his family, which result in family quarrels, child delinquency and desertion; the lack of incentive to improve a home when monthly eviction seems inevitable, and when frequent visits from an irate landlord, a dilapidated house and a poor neighbourhood, are continual reminders of dependency. Even if the regular payment promised is small a better atmosphere is created. Without the full amount of the rent to meet, the man feels that his meagre earnings, added to what rent allowance is regularly paid, prevent the debt from accumulating hopelessly. A better type of house can be secured if the landlord is sure of a certain fixed sum.
2. The probability, with a long drawn-out depression, that many landlords will have to apply for relief themselves unless some regular payment can be relied on. This situation is not met by a policy of payment for rent by work for this necessitates landlords expending money on materials.
3. The unfairness to kindly landlords of any "casual payment policy" as rent paid only in an emergency is paid most often to the landlords who make the greatest fuss, or to large corporations, who put the bailiff in at once. Where it becomes known that rent is paid only in an emergency, the emergency is created. This results, in actual practice, in rent being paid more or less regularly following a monthly bailiff's notice or a staged eviction, in an endeavour to force more frequent payment.
4. Against the argument of inevitable exploitation of relief funds under regular payment, it is advanced that with careful investigation it is possible to obtain a real idea of the family's need, more especially as it will be receiving other forms of relief. In

this way, it is possible to reduce the likelihood of fraud to a minimum.

5. The evasive rent policy or lack of policy of many agencies tends to create in the tenant a similar attitude, and he regards the rent as the last debt to be considered.
6. Over-crowding in smaller, cheaper houses, or even rooms, almost inevitably follows upon non-rental aid and consequent moving and shifting from one place to another.

Some arguments against regular payments stress the following points : —

1. If housing accommodation provided through relief funds were fairly adequate, the family would make no effort to find work and assume its own rent responsibility. To relieve the feeling of insecurity and dependency it is possible for tenants to do a great deal in repairing and improving the house and surroundings.
2. The payment of regular rent to a landlord is hardly fair, inasmuch as neither relief organizations nor governments undertake to supplement other investors who have had financial losses due to the depression.
3. Claims are made that payment of rent only as an emergency measure is a big saving of money. The temptation to conceal actual income and misrepresent the situation is not so great with irregular payments as it is where payment is made as part of a regular relief allowance. The amount to be spent in the future, due to family disintegration, is problematical.

SOME VARIATIONS IN POLICIES IN VOGUE AT THE PRESENT TIME

It will be readily seen that a number of local variations in policy are due to local differences in the price of real estate, the number of houses available, and the type of tenant making up the majority of the unemployed in any given area. As has been mentioned before, factors of this kind enter into every situation, particularly in rural districts. In some of these districts, rent is rarely paid by relief organizations except in unique cases, and for other reasons than unemployment. In the suburban or semi-rural areas adjoining cities, the percentage of unemployed industrial workers is often out of all proportion to the total population. Small, cheap houses are at a premium, and the relief organization is faced with a difficult and peculiar problem.

On the whole, the different policies cited hereunder are in force in urban centres of varying population.

CANADA

At the Conference held in Ottawa, May 1933, under the Council's auspices on the Social Administration of General and Unemployment Relief, it was suggested that an equitable monthly rental could be arrived at by multiplying the annual tax on the property by two and dividing by twelve. This method allows a small balance for depreciation after taxes and insurance have been paid. In most cases, in actual practice in Canada the amount paid is based on 150% of the annual taxes

divided by twelve. From the cities that sent in reports to the Council, covering relief schedules in the winter of 1934, the amounts allowed covered small, medium and large families, though in several of the cities studied there was no variation beyond the minimum paid for two people and the maximum for more than two.

The amount paid for rent was usually based on a percentage of the amount paid on annual taxes, and averaged from one-fifth to one-third of the total weekly relief budget allowed for food, fuel, shelter and public utilities.

There were no cities that reported as paying rent regularly on a fixed periodical basis, though in several of the Western Cities, the inclusion of rent definitely now for a period of two or even three years continuously in individual relief allowances would almost put rental aid on a regular basis. (e.g.—Winnipeg, Regina, Calgary, Edmonton, Etc.)*

Among the Canadian cities reporting, the following practices were noted :—

- (i) 3 cities pay no rent.
- (ii) 2 cities have a maximum of \$5.00 or \$6.00 regardless of size of family.
- (iii) 15 pay as a maximum, from \$8.00 to \$10.00 per month; in 3 of the 15 this maximum includes heat.
- (iv) 14 pay from \$11.00 to \$14.50 per month.
- (v) 8 pay from \$15.00 upwards as a maximum. In two of these cities this payment also includes heat. One of these 8 cities pays \$20.00 in the case of a special emergency.
- (vi) 3 pay \$20.00 as a maximum. (b)

Almost all these cities have made some provision for giving assistance with mortgage interest payments to home owners.

So far as is known no regulations are in existence which suggest the size of house appropriate for a specified number of people.

RELIEF EMPLOYMENT AND RENT

Employment through work relief projects has been given extensively throughout the Dominion. The amount paid under such a system ranged from \$3.00 to \$4.80 a day per man. This work was given to try to meet the ever-present rent debt, or to supplement rental allowance and keep small bills from accumulating. From engineers in various centres in Ontario it was estimated that the relief work programmes undertaken by that province during 1930-31 averaged at least forty or fifty per cent above normal costs for such projects. Four main reasons given for this increased cost were : (1) The use of man-power instead of machinery; (2) Working during the winter months; (3) Inexperienced workers and (4) Time lost through frequent changes of "gangs." From the study made of the subject, it would appear that relief work projects as generally carried on heretofore are too expensive, and provide only one type of work—hard manual labour. However, they met and are meeting a pressing need, in providing an income of some sort, even if a small one. (c)

(b) These allowances were for the Winter of 1933-34.

(c) Unemployment and Relief in Ontario—H. M. Cassidy.

THE FAMILY'S OWN "SHIFTS"

In the compilation of unemployment relief experience by Margaret Wead, entitled "A Roof Over Their Heads,"^(d) an excellent summary is given of the ways in which families try to adjust themselves when no assistance whatever is given with rent. As these same attempts at meeting the problem are frequently made by our Canadian families, they can be outlined briefly, with special stress on some results encountered in this Dominion. The problems arising from these attempts at adjustment not only occur when no rent is paid, but are found to some extent where the uncertainty of irregular rent payment forces families to make a drastic effort to meet some of the rent obligation.

(1) Where it is possible to do so, cash is extracted from food, fuel, or clothing orders and given to the landlord. Any small amount of money that can be earned by any member of the family is also paid to offset this debt.

(2) An agreement is made with the landlord to renovate the house or to do similar work on other property owned by him. This lends itself to abuse by an unscrupulous landlord, and often terminates in a quarrel and eviction. Or the landlord allows so little for the tenant's work that the tenant finds himself with a full-time job, and the chance of earning small amounts of money, or looking for permanent work, is reduced to a minimum. When this procedure is utilized it should be done on a strictly business basis and accurate accounts kept, etc.

(3) The family moves into condemned, unsanitary shacks, where it often remains for a considerable period, as the health authorities cannot force a move when they are unable to provide any accommodation as an alternative. Or the family builds out of purloined material, one-roomed shacks on waste land without proper sanitary equipment.

(4) Two or three, or even more families "double up" and crowd into small houses only large enough for one family, or a family of five or six persons occupies one large room in a house filled with transient single men and women in a poor quarter of the city. This problem of overcrowding is one of the most serious in our Canadian cities. Lack of adequate sanitary and cooking accommodation results in a lowering of standards of cleanliness and in poor food preparation. Lack of any possibility of privacy tends to a lowering of moral standards, and the cramped quarters increases nervous friction due to the fact that babies, school children and an unemployed man are crowded together, while the wife attempts to get a meal, or do the week's washing.

Behind all these various attempts to make some adjustment for themselves is the continually changing background of the monthly or bi-monthly move. It is impossible to estimate, and it will be next to impossible to repair the harm done to the characters and standards of these families who are constantly on the move. It is out of the question for them to attend the same church, the same school or even to make friendly contacts with the same neighbours for any length of time before the impossibility of meeting the rent forces them to seek another temporary home. The tramp has rarely been an asset to society, and by ignoring the necessity for making some regular provision for shelter accommodation we are teaching thousands of destitute families to do without the normal neighbourhood interests that lead to a real feeling of municipal and social responsibility.

(d) American Family Welfare Association—New York.

WHAT CAN BE DONE ?

Some arrangement whereby the families of the unemployed can live in reasonable security, either by forbidding evictions or by arranging for the payment of rent with regularity, is therefore essential. This appears to demand a greater expenditure of money. Work relief too is expensive and only partially fills the need. Methods of saving expense in other ways must therefore be devised. A great number of suggestions have been made along these lines, but it is unlikely that any one policy advocated will of itself be entirely feasible.

From government statistics, from the lightening of relief loads and from the increase in the volume of trade, indications are that we are emerging from the "Unemployment Crisis of the '30's." The consensus of opinion of both economic and social work experts is not, however, as encouraging as the statistics of the last two months. In some municipalities and townships the relief debt already incurred has been tremendous. It is doubtful how far the upswing will carry us or how long it will last. The probability is that rent, as well as other forms of relief, will have to be given in a fairly comprehensive way for some considerable time. But, we can evaluate what we now realize is likely to be the home background of a goodly proportion of our citizens, and adapt our policies, with what skill we may possess, to avoid pauperization on the one hand and hopelessness on the other.

GOVERNING PRINCIPLES

(1) It would appear that where we know that for some considerable time in the future, a family group appears certain to be dependent upon social aid, a shelter at a minimum compatible with health and decency, should be regarded as essential an element in the maintenance of family life as food.

(2) Whatever the amount of these shelter payments, they must be assured with some degree of certainty either by a rental allowance, or a work for rent policy, with adequate investigation and supervision to protect the private contributor or the taxpayer through whose funds such aid is provided.

(3) As the amount of food provided depends on the size of the family concerned, so it would appear also to be imperative that the size of the family in need of assistance to meet their rent should also be taken into consideration, if we are to avoid some of the more serious consequences of overcrowding for the larger family.

(4) In order to assure that the community actually obtains for its dependent families, in each case, reasonable accommodation commensurate with its scale of shelter allowances, the calculation of the latter should also bear some relationship to the value and taxes of the property occupied.

(5) While these principles are advanced in the present situation, it is highly probable, however, that for the incidence of dependent or partially dependent families with which our larger cities are likely to be faced for many years, nothing short of a general housing scheme for families of low paid wage-earners, developed under the official encouragement of the public authorities, will ever meet the situation with real economy.

(6) The possibility of rural rehabilitation of individual families, still with some claim to rural property of their own, or capable of rural settlement, and of comparatively recent urban residence, should be carefully explored, as an alternative, in many cases, to long term shelter arrangement in a city centre.

FRENCH-SPEAKING SERVICES

DEVELOPING PUBLIC HYGIENE

Mlle. A. MARCHESAUT, Director L'Ecole d'Hygiene Sociale Appliquée, Université de Montreal.

It would appear that the average person, today, displays a marked interest in the preservation of his individual and community health; but does his practical application always correspond with his declared beliefs? May we affirm that the general population, or rather certain whole groups within it are beginning to take the action necessary for the protection of the public health? Those engaged in the health services feel that this is really the situation and quote, in support of their contention, the growth of public health teaching in the schools, the formation of increasing numbers of "scout" groups, interested not only in character development but also in their own physical wellbeing; the progress made by voluntary health associations in the campaigns against infant mortality and tuberculosis, and especially the general education of the public.

These advances in modern hygiene have not come suddenly; they are the achievements of long struggles, stretching back to history's early epochs. In fact, in the Bible, one finds some of the fundamental principles of personal hygiene, as for instance, the obligation of isolating those suffering from contagious diseases, or those thought to be so.

PROGRESS FOLLOWED SUFFERING

As often claimed, it was these epidemic diseases which served to arouse public attention to the necessity of preserving health. In fact, to some degree they may be regarded as one of the starting points in the realization of the cause of public health by reason of the wholesome fear which they have always aroused. Under force of such fear, persons have been ready to submit to precautions, to which they object under ordinary circumstances. So, there came about the isolation of the sick, and the quarantine of persons exposed to contagion when it was recognized at Venice that the plague was being transmitted by the numerous sick people who continuously entered that much frequented port.

The succour given to the world by Jenner's discovery of vaccination, which has subdued small-pox, is a matter of general knowledge, but it is only at a comparatively recent date that bacteriology has made possible the realization of actual preventive medicine and that debt is owed to the eminent French scientist, Louis Pasteur, in whose steps many students of different lands have followed, and to them are due such memorable discoveries as serums, anti-toxins, and vaccines of which increasing use is being made in small-pox, tuberculosis, diphtheria, typhoid-fever, and scarlet-fever.

LOOKING FORWARD

So, the development of public hygiene has a long story, and its ascending record must be continued to the lengthening of the ordinary span of human life, and the protection of generations to come. To that end, public hygiene must have three aids—legislation, organization, and education,—and there must in addition be assured the co-operation of the general population.

Legislation is necessary, and that is recognized everywhere, and, (for which be thanks!) in Canada our legislators have realized that organization is also necessary. So, we have the Dominion Department of Health, the Provincial and Municipal Departments of Health, and in recent years the County Health units.

CANADA

The Federal Health Service has under its jurisdiction those activities which concern the country as a whole, such as the quarantine stations, medical examination of all immigrants, control of patent medicine, pure-foods, and narcotic drugs as well as the stimulation of health education propaganda, especially concerning child health. The federal power, through the Dominion Bureau of Statistics maintains a service on vital statistics, and through the Department of Agriculture, seeks the eradication of bovine tuberculosis.

QUEBEC

The Quebec Provincial Department of Health, founded in 1887, since then has made rapid and marvellous strides. It comprises the divisions of demographic statistics, inspection, chemical and bacteriological laboratory service, sanitary engineering, venereal diseases, and publicity. Through these different services, it is at the service of the various municipalities of the province, to which it furnishes expert consultant services necessary for the conservation of the public health.

Turning to municipal health services, cities, whose population is over 5,000, must now entrust to a qualified medical man, the direction of the health service. Without detailed examination of their work, it can be maintained that they have fully demonstrated their usefulness.

The County Health units, founded in 1926, have developed splendidly. The Provincial Health Department Report, 1932-3, showed 28 health units, functioning in 26 counties, serving a population of 800,000 people.

Side by side with these official agencies, of indubitable value and necessity, the voluntary health services operate, designed to prevent sickness, to promote health and to combat infant mortality and tuberculosis. They might be called the necessary appendages of the official health services in the work in which they are mutually associated in happy co-operation. Under such headings come the Anti-Tuberculosis Association, various organizations for physical education and character teaching, the Assistance Maternelle, the Infantile Hygiene, the Goutte de Lait, "Fresh Air Camps" etc. Assuredly these are useful services, meeting definite needs, and their development is to be encouraged.

THE PUBLIC

But the success of the public hygiene cause depends in large part on the education of the general public. Already commendable efforts and considerable progress can be recorded, but one must not grow weary. All means to this end must be utilized. Personally, it is submitted that the most efficient medium is still the house to house work of the visiting nurse. Her role is that of an educator with her counsels, often illustrated by actual demonstration during her visit, offering the mothers examples, which they eagerly follow. She is equipped to teach good health habits to the individual family, through which many diseases may be prevented.



CHURCH AND SOCIAL WORK

SOCIAL SERVICE IN THE UNITED CHURCH OF CANADA

REV. D. N. MCLACHLAN, Secretary, Board of Evangelism and Social Service, The United Church of Canada.

Social Service is not a new movement in organized Christianity. By common action, the first Christians met every need of their group; while the organized provisions of the early Church to meet these needs were the marvel of Roman historians. The opening proclamation of the Founder of Christianity was a mission to the needs of neglected individuals and groups—the poor, the captive, the blind, the bruised, the enslaved. His standard of a final judgment was a five-fold test of service to the hungry, the naked, the stranger, the sick and the imprisoned. Putting it in the language of today, it would be a mission to the unemployed, the under-privileged, the immigrant, the defective and the delinquent.

Every great awakening in the Christian Church has brought to the front the prominent place of the Social Message in Christianity. Modern philanthropy, social and labor legislation, came as a result of the Evangelical Revival. The Missionary Movement of the last generation gave to the city, Evangelism, the settlement, the institutional church, and scientific case work. In the last twenty-five years, social service has taken on a new significance in its many sidedness. It has revealed itself as:

- “1. That form of human betterment that seeks to transform man’s associated and community life;
2. That form of service which assists individuals in their endeavor to establish proper conditions in the development of their lives;
3. That service which seeks to contribute to the relief of the sick, the poor and the prisoner, by methods of research whereby the cause of poverty, disease and crime are made known and in many instances reduced, if not removed.
4. That service which aims at social emancipation. This has been described as the “deliverance of human society from poverty, disease, crime and misery; the development and perfection of the institutions of men’s associated life, and the construction of a social order that is the city of God on earth.”

PRACTICAL APPLICATIONS

The human race seems to be permanently conservative and desperately cautious. Therefore, recognizing the fact that research and social education would require much time in order to persuade the authorities of the need for taking the necessary steps to bring about social improvement, the Communion now represented in the United Church of Canada decided that preventive, redemptive and educational

institutions would be a necessity. Such refuges would be required to minister to the victims of social disadvantage. The result has been that across the Dominion, the United Church maintains Homes for unmarried mothers, delinquent and pre-delinquent girls, Farm Centres for under-privileged boys, and Fresh Air Camps to which hundreds of mothers and children are taken into the country for a longer or shorter period. The United Church also provides and maintains hospitals and school homes in many needy sections of the country.

It is true that no Church has a right to be regarded as a social service centre until it becomes constructive and preventive as well as palliative. While the work of education is proceeding, the United Church is constantly engaged in research work in the hope of discovering causes and bringing to the attention of the proper authorities the need for social improvements. The United Church has given itself to the study of such subjects as the christianization of the social order, the home, marriage and the home, the causes of crime and delinquency, and the place of the moving picture in the development of character. The hope of the Church is to make a contribution in the way of research and experiment which will re-mould those social and industrial conditions which lie behind the slum with its unhealthy, degrading influences. The research carried on by the Church reveals the extent to which unwholesome influences are undermining the best interests of those unable to protect themselves. For example, it has been discovered that delinquent girls owe their delinquency to such facts as:—

The inexperience of youth; the desire for security; the desire for recreation; desire for affection; lack of parental control; pernicious literature; doubtful amusements; lack of healthy recreation; the spirit of adventure; the broken home, which is largely the result of death, divorce, separation and desertion, with their contributing causes; the lack of ethical and religious training; the love of luxury; feeble-mindedness; economic stress; the motor car; broken promises; strong drink; the roadhouse dance hall; loitering about the streets; and direct temptation from degraded men.

RESULTS

The hospitals maintained by the Church in frontier settlements are provided with doctors and nurses. Many of these hospitals are in territory inhabited chiefly by non-Anglo-Saxon people. It is not too much to say that many lives have been spared through the effective service given in the Church hospitals and much prejudice has been removed from the minds of persons who are of non-Anglo-Saxon origin. Such service does a great deal to unify the various nationalities represented in Canadian life. The social centres in the more crowded areas of population are doing much to promote right ideas of social intercourse among the young who have become known as the under-privileged class. The children and youth of various nationalities and creeds are taught to play together and think together; to recognize social obligations and also to feel a sense of responsibility as Canadian citizens.

In thinking of results in redemptive institutions maintained by the Church, one has to remember that nearly every individual who is welcomed into any of the places of refuge provided by the Church is physically under-nourished, emotionally unstrung, and mentally and morally impoverished. The first task of the social worker is to bring those committed to her care back to normal conditions of life. When

through careful training, wise supervision and Christian influences, physical normalcy is reached, a surprisingly large number show a decreased tendency towards delinquency. At least seventy percent of the inmates in the social institutions of the Church are returned to lives of respectability, re-entering society determined to begin a new and better life. Of the remainder, many belong to that unfortunate class of mental defectives who are not so much immoral as non-moral and should be constantly under custodial care; otherwise they become repeaters. Re-entry into society is the critical hour for all those discharged from United Church institutions. If they can enter good homes, with proper surroundings, the way to a better life is comparatively easy. If on the other hand, these helps are lacking, the "going" becomes exceedingly difficult.

The need for closer cooperation between the institutions of the Church and the families of the Church becomes ever more clear. Shakespeare showed his wisdom, when he said: "It is not enough to help the feeble up, but to support him after." It is one of the beautiful compensations of this life that no one can sincerely try to help another without helping himself.

NEWS NOTES

HOUSING

The Lieutenant Governor's Committee (Ontario) on Housing Conditions in the City of Toronto has been issued, and is exceedingly well summarized in the Labour Gazette (p. 1008, Vol. XXXIV No. 11). The report proper runs to nearly 150 pages.

It defines slums and unfit dwellings, estimates that there are within the city limits from 2,000 to 3,000 dwellings unfit for human habitation, notes that these so-called homes are dilapidated, non-weather proof, wholly lacking in sanitation, infected with vermin and so over-crowded as to be cancers in the body politic because they make for ill health, bad morals and a high mortality rate. Incidentally, the report chronicles the existence of a serious shortage of small houses which will amount to some 25,000 dwelling units once there is a return of normal employment conditions. All these aspects of the situation are dealt with in the report, which is illustrated with pictures of typical slum houses.

The committee's findings review what has been accomplished in slum-cleaning and housing reform in Great Britain, France, Germany, Belgium and the United States. It is pointed out that wage-earners in the lowest scale are unable to pay existing rents for decent dwellings even if these were available and that it is, indeed, impossible for landlords to build suitable dwellings under present cost and interest conditions which they can rent on a basis within the capacity of these low-class wage-earners. "In the lowest income group of society the insecurity of employment and the inadequacy of wages do not permit the payment of rentals much in excess of \$10 to \$15 per month in good times. In bad times unemployment may throw the whole burden of their rent, together with other relief, upon private charity or the public purse. On the other hand, such are the costs of land, construction, maintenance and, above all, interest, that reasonably decent dwellings of a suitable size cannot be provided on a commercial basis for less than \$25 to \$30 per month.

It is even less possible for the poorest group to buy, than it is for them to rent, adequate accommodation. Home ownership is impossible."

The inevitable conclusion is (1) that the city should initiate forthwith extensive projects for the demolition of slums and the provision of low-cost houses; (2) that the municipality should seek the necessary financial assistance from the provincial and federal governments; and (3) that a city-planning commission with adequate power to act should be set up immediately.

The report is one of undoubted value to every social worker, teacher, or other professional worker whose duties or interests centre about the family in the home.

ONTARIO INDUSTRIAL SCHOOLS

The Special Committee of Inquiry into the protection and training of youthful offenders, appointed by the Minister of Welfare, in September has been meeting, in plenary session or committees almost weekly, but no intimation has been given of the date of its report. Its members have been inspecting all special training institutions within the province. Judge H. S. Mott is Chairman, the Deputy Ministers of the Departments of Education, Hospitals, Provincial Secretary, Public Welfare and Attorney General, are members, together with several representatives of women's organizations, well-known workers in the delinquency or boys' work field and the Honourary Solicitor (W. L. Scott, K.C.) and Executive Director of the Canadian Council.

ONTARIO—"MIMICO"

The forty-six year old Victoria Industrial Training School for Boys at Mimico has been closed on December 1st, 1934, by order of the Minister of Welfare. The boys from Mimico have been moved to the Boys' Training School at Bowmanville, where previously boys described as pre-delinquent had been admitted to care, either on voluntary parental application or by direct admission through the Department, on application of a service club, court, or social agency. While the Government assumed fundamentally the responsibility for Bowmanville, various service clubs some of which were represented on the Board had contributed generously to buildings, swimming pool, dormitories, etc. The boys in care at Bowmanville differed from the boys in care at Mimico, technically, in that the latter had really been committed by court order, and actually, in that Bowmanville had required an intelligence quotient of 80 and had declined to accept boys characterized by more serious or recurring incorrigibilities. Mimico, partly as a result had a heavy proportion of more serious and committed offenders and of mentally defective cases. A year ago, under Capt. W. G. Green, the new superintendent, Mimico was thoroughly re-organized, and Capt. Green now goes to Bowmanville, as assistant to the superintendent.

Victoria Industrial School was established in 1887 as part of the penal system of the Province. The Government and the municipalities shared costs of the inmates maintenance. Girls were sent to Alexandra Industrial School.

In September the Industrial Schools' Association reported to the Minister that immediate steps were necessary to prevent injury to the boys at Mimico, since construction of the building was faulty and fire hazard great. The association refused to accept responsibility further;

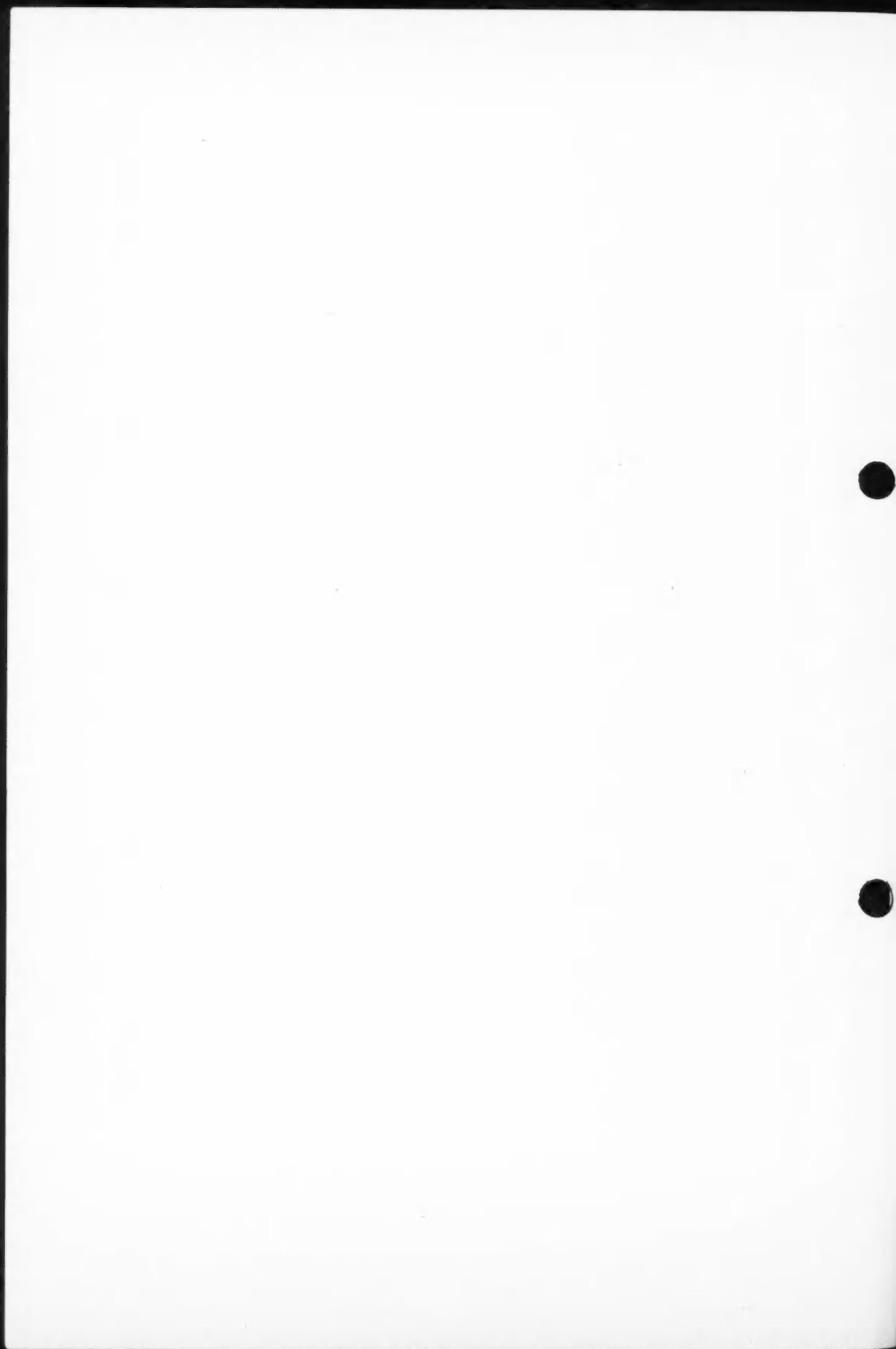
it had petitioned the old Government on the same grounds, but no action had been forthcoming. The present site was unfitted to agricultural training of the boys, since it was too near the city. The Association suggested removal to better surroundings, and instanced the advantages of Bowmanville, where the buildings were modern and the grounds large. The drawback, in the Association's view, was that different types of boys had been sent to Mimico and to Bowmanville.

The provincial works Department reported that the Mimico dormitories were overcrowded, the building was insanitary and without proper equipment, the infirmary lacking medical supplies and the electrical appliances a constant fire menace. Essential repairs would cost \$12,000, and no estimate for a complete remodelling was offered, although it was intimated that the school was not worth rebuilding.

FATHERS IN THE CHILD WELFARE MOVEMENT

"Mother and Child," in a current issue reports an interesting development in the child welfare movement in the establishment of the first Fathers' Council attached to an English Welfare centre through the foresight of the local Medical Office of Health. There is now a Central Union of Fathers' Councils to co-ordinate the efforts of the separate units.

"Mother and Child" comments "there is really nothing peculiar in a man learning about and taking an interest in the health of his wife or of his child. He is responsible equally with his wife for the creation of new life, though it is not his lot to have to bear the burden of begetting. If it happened to be so, there is little doubt that men would be much more alive to the necessity for maternity and child welfare schemes and much more insistent than they are now for as wide as possible an extension of all services which are proving useful in combating the unnecessary loss of life and the morbidity which accompanies motherhood."



(Continued from inside front cover)

- No. 55. The Non-Academic Child.
No. 56. Protection Against Diphtheria.
No. 57. You Wanted to Know Something About the Canadian Council on Child and Family Welfare. (Published in French also). (English out of print).
No. 57A. The Canadian Council on Child and Family Welfare. (Revised edition (1934) of No. 57).
No. 58. Social Service Exchange.
No. 59. Relief and the Standard Budget.
No. 60. Helping People in Need. Record Form and Instructions, (designed for use in the present unemployment situation).
No. 61. Boys in Trouble.
No. 62. "In Times Like These" (Suggestions for the organization of community welfare and relief services.
Supplement A—The Actual Provision of Relief.
Supplement B—The Organization of Special Services for Problems of a Particular Type.
Supplement C—The Organization of Relief Work Programmes.
No. 63. The Visiting Housekeeper.
No. 64. The Central Bureau in the Catholic Welfare Programme.
No. 65. The Day Nursery in the Programme of Child Care.
No. 66. Sample Food Budgets and reprints of the Section on Menus and Budgets.
No. 67. Fair Time for the Nurse.
No. 68. Posture, Body mechanics.
No. 69. Ophthalmia Neonatorum. (Babies' Sore Eyes).
No. 70. The Bewildered Community To-day—Canada, 1934.

Reprints

- (1) Some Considerations re Health Insurance.
- (2) Some Considerations re Unemployment Insurance.
- (3) Administration of Clothing Relief.
- (4) Activities of the Department of Public Welfare, Toronto.
- (5) Child Protection in England and Wales.
- (6) The Essentials of a Relief Programme for Canada.

L.T.A. Publ'n No. 1-12. Recreation Bulletins dealing with various phases of recreation are available on request
L. T. A. Publ'n. No. 13, Community Gardens.

Charts—(Wall Size)—

- No. 1, 7, 10, 14. Infant Mortality Rates in Sixty Canadian cities (Statistics 1924, 1925, 1926, 1928).
No. 9, 12, 16. Is your District Safe for Babies? (Rural Infant Mortality Rates, 1925, 1926, 1928).
No. 17A-B-C. Does Your City Lose Its Babies? Statistical Report of Infant Mortality in Cities of Canada. (Five Year comparison, 1926-30). 1932.
No. 2, 8, 11, 15. Why Our Babies Die (Statistics, 1925, 1926, 1927, 1928).
No. 4. Illiteracy Breeds Illiteracy, 1921 Census.
No. 6. Child Placing is Child Saving.
No. 5. The Vicious Treadmill (Illiteracy in Cities—1921 Census).
No. 18. A Biot on the Map of Canada. (English and French)

Posters (at cost)—No. 1. "The Gay Adventurers." No. 4. "Baby's Stomach is Very Small."
No. 2. "The Protection of the Child." No. 5. "Have You a Clean Bill of Health."
No. 3. "Every Canadian's Heritage." No. 6. "The Porridge Party."
No. 7. "The Sun Baby."

Pre-Natal Letters—(In English and French). A series of nine letters giving pre-natal help and advice. (Free).

Post-Natal Letters—(In English and French)—A series of seventeen letters giving post-natal help and advice. (Free).

Pre-School Letters—(In English)—Five series of 17 letters, covering the years from one to six in the child's life.

Child Welfare Problems in Habit Formation and Training—(A series of six pamphlets). (Free).

Patterns—Layette Patterns and Patterns for Abdominal and Hose Supports. (At cost).

Diet Folders—Series 1, 2, 3, 4, 5—dealing with the child's diet from birth to school age. (At cost).

Health Record Forms—For the use of physicians, clinics, conferences, etc. (At cost).

Record Forms—(1) Child's History. (2) Family History. For the use of children's agencies, institutions, etc. (At cost). (3) Physical Record Form for Institutions. (At cost).

Annually—Proceedings and Papers of the Annual Meeting and Conference.

Official Organ—"Child and Family Welfare," issued bi-monthly

Canadian Council on Child and Family Welfare

Founded in Ottawa, in 1926, as the result of a National Conference of Child Welfare Workers, convened by the Child Welfare Division, Federal Department of Health,
COUNCIL HOUSE, 245 COOPER ST., OTTAWA, CANADA.

OBJECT.

- (1) To create throughout the Dominion of Canada an informed public opinion on problems in the field of social welfare.
- (2) To assist in the promotion of standards and services which are based on scientific principles and which have been proved effective in practical experience.

METHODS.

- (1) The preparation and publication of literature, arrangement of lectures, addresses, radio and film material, etc., and general educational propaganda in social welfare.
- (2) Conferences. (3) Field Studies and Surveys. (4) Research.

MEMBERSHIP.

The membership shall be in two groups, organization and individual.

- (1) Organization membership shall be open to any organization, institution or group having the progress of Canadian Social Welfare wholly or in part included in their program, articles of incorporation, or other statement of incorporation.

- (2) Individual membership shall be open to any individual interested in or engaged in Welfare work, upon payment of the fee, whether that individual is in work, under any government in Canada or not.

FEES.

1. National Organizations..... Annual Fee, \$6.00—Representatives: 3.
 2. Provincial Organizations..... Annual Fee, \$3.00—Representatives: 2.
 3. Municipal Organizations..... Annual Fee, \$2.00—Representatives: 1.
 4. Individual Members..... Annual Fee, \$1.00—Representatives: 1.
- In electing the Governing Board and the Executive, all members will be grouped according to their registration by the Treasurer.

Every member will receive a copy of the proceedings of the Annual Conference and such other publications as may be published from time to time.

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